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The Week.

That the President desires further financial legislation, and that he will urge it upon Congress in the extra session of November, is important news; but it would be more important if he or any other in authority would tell us exactly what legislation is contemplated. To whip through a hurried and harmful bill in November would, no doubt, fall in well with the plans of certain people, but it would be a poor way to advance currency reform. The country is entitled to a deliberate study of any comprehensive bill proposed. Hysterical action, urged in an assumed crisis, is the last thing the situation calls for. If November brings any such scheme as has been attributed to Senator Aldrich, of utilizing the demand for a more flexible currency to create a new market for sluggish securities, it should at once be put over to December and March and the Greek Kalends. Even a measure looking solely to an enlarged emergency circulation of banknotes requires pains and time to frame and pass. The apparent difficulty is that the Congressional leaders do not agree. Senator Aldrich's committee has been incubating so long in vain that it begins to look as if it had been sitting on nothing but china eggs, with possibly a fragment or two of a gold brick. Reform of our currency is undoubtedly needed, but it should be real reform, forward and not backward.

General Wood's promotion by the President to be major-general will have a very bad effect upon the discipline of the army. The question is not so much of the means by which General Wood attained his present rank, as of his military fitness for the higher one to which he is now designated. When President McKinley made him a brigadier, the army felt that it was a case of favoritism. His promotion to be major-general by Roosevelt will be considered by the best men in the army as a slight put upon demonstrated military capacity. In the course of a few years, unless the President of the time has the courage to pass him by, Gen. Wood—an army surgeon—will become the head of the army. With him will be associated, as senior major-generals, those heroes of many a hard-fought interview, Fred Grant and Funston.

The President's selection of thirty-four veteran colonels of the army for retirement as brigadier-generals is accompanied by the announcement that it will end this method of rewarding the civil-war veterans, except in cases of "special importance." The process of making new generals for a day and then retiring them had gone on pretty steadily under President Roosevelt, as it did under Mr. McKinley. Whereas there were but forty-two retired generals on January 1, 1898, there are now, with Friday's selections, one hundred and fifty-one of different grades—a plain demonstration of one way by which our pension bills have been swollen owing to the war with Spain. It must be stated, however, that the welfare of the army demanded its rejuvenation, and, as Congress did not object, this was the fairest way to remove the old men who were physically and professionally no longer up to their work. Both the President and Secretary Root were careful to obtain the consent of the Senate Military Committee before beginning these wholesale retirements. It is needless to say that Congress never intended that one vacancy in the brigadier-generals should serve to give thirty or forty men that rank for a day. An unscrupulous President might thus place several hundred capable officers on the retired list without their consent. Now both Congress and President Roosevelt realize that this cannot go on indefinitely. Friday's selections comprise mainly meritorious officers. But there are dozens like them, and some far more worthy who have retired since 1898 with the rank of colonel. Hence there will inevitably be much jealousy and heart-burning.

President Roosevelt has ordered the reinstatement of an employee of the Government Printing-Office who had been discharged because he had not lived up to his alleged obligations to a labor union. It would have been easy for a Presidential candidate for reëlection to dodge the issue, and at the same time to find another place for the injured employee. What has happened is another deserved check to the arrogance of the labor unions. The President reminds them that no rules and regulations of a union "can be permitted to override the laws of the United States." The offence of the employee who was discharged was simply that of giving information to a member of Congress as to means of saving money by changes in the office of the Public Printer. As those changes involved a reduction of the laboring force, there was an outcry from the union. Dismissal was quite too mild a punishment for an assistant foreman who was so unpatriotic as to wish to save a few thousands for Uncle Sam. Hanging is too good for a union workman who fails to realize the true motto of our up-to-date unions—"to make work, not to do it."

Commissioner Ware has hitherto shown a scrupulous regard for the civil-service laws during his administration of the Pension Bureau, and we regret to notice signs of carelessness, or of a changed spirit. Last week there came to light the forced resignation of an examining surgeon to whose efficiency Mr. Ware certified, because of an oral executive order that, whenever practicable, an examining board shall be composed of two Republicans and one Democrat. It seemed "practicable" and proper to Mr. Ware to remove this faithful surgeon because he was a Democrat. The Washington *Post* has now brought to light another indiscretion. A few days ago, it seems, Mr. Ware wrote to a newly appointed examiner who was getting a salary of $2,000 plus a pension for disability, ordering him to "swap" places with another veteran who had no pension in addition to his salary. The new appointee has thus been forced to content himself with less salary and an inferior position. According to the *Post*, Mr. Ware wrote that he desired to give the older employee some of the "chicken pie." If he actually used this language, Mr. Ware has coined a phrase that will recoil upon him like Postmaster-General Payne's "hot air."

We have been several times assured from Washington that the bottom has been reached in the probing of the postal scandals, but the indictment of George W. Beavers by the Federal grand jury in Brooklyn does not bear out this assertion. Beavers was chief of the Salaries and Allowances Division of the Post-Office Department. He resigned suddenly last spring, and his name has frequently been mentioned in connection with the promotion syndicate which is said to have operated in the New York, Brooklyn, and other offices. Beavers is also said to have had something to do with the sale of the Brandt-Dent cash registers, in which ex-Congressman Driggs was interested. It is thus perfectly evident that the indictment and expected arrest of Beavers open up a wide field for further investigation and exposure, and render any attempt to hush up the scandal more impossible than ever.

The discussion within the navy as to the efficiency of the present engineering force, which has been raging ever since the amalgamation of the line and staff, goes on unceasingly. Capt. Bowman H. McCalla is the latest officer to assert that there has been no deterioration because

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of the change. As arguments he cites examples of his own efficiency as a midshipman on the old *Marblehead* in 1864—which are not very convincing. More important is his belief that "the engines and boilers of our ships of war are today in better condition than they were prior to the Spanish war, aside from the mistakes and mishaps due to inexperience with new types." In this opinion he differs not only from Rear-Admiral Melville, but also from many other officers. The facts, too, would seem to be against him. He admits that in the largest ships the same engineers have charge who were in charge in 1898. But these men are either rapidly disappearing from the active list or are reaching the rank on attainment of which they are relieved from further sea duty. What is to happen when they have all ended their service on ships or been retired? This is the question that is being asked by those who are alarmed at the inexperience of the officers now commanding the engine rooms of the smaller ships. Is it not coming to pass that the warrant machinists are rapidly assuming the duties of the commissioned engineers of 1898, who were both better paid and better educated?

Judge Raymond's decision that an Indian parent may not lease the land of his minor child until he has been made its legal guardian, shows a wise regard for the future of the Five Tribes. But a small proportion of even the most progressive Indians are competent to judge of the value of land leases; and shameless exploitation of tribal property has gone on unchecked under cover of contracts made with Indians who have never touched a plough. A favorite form of lease provides that the lessee—any adventurous person with a team to take him into the Territory—shall have absolute possession and control of as much land as he can fence for periods varying from five to fifteen years. At the end of that term he turns over the "improved" farm to the lessor. As the so-called improvements usually consist of a rickety wooden shanty, "pole-and-hay" stables; and a two-wire fence, the Indian gets for himself, or for the child in whose name the lease was made, nothing but worn-out, weed-fouled fields, and dilapidated excuses for buildings and fences. Belated though Judge Raymond's interposition is, it will be welcomed by all who have an unselfish interest in the natives of the Indian Territory.

Mr. Justice Nash of the Supreme Court, sitting at Rochester, has refused to dissolve an injunction obtained by a machine company against a local lodge of machinists to prevent picketing and other interference with the company's employees. If Justice Nash is correctly reported, his decision is of far-reaching importance, and the view which the Appellate Court takes of it will be anticipated with great interest. He is quoted as maintaining that the common-law right of action for enticing away a servant or employee from his master has not been abolished, unless, possibly, where the object is to secure an advance in wages or to maintain wage rates. This strike was ordered because the company refused to sign an agreement that it would not employ any persons not members of the union, and also because it refused to discard the premium system in its factory. As neither of these positions assumed by the company affected the question of wages, Justice Nash decides that the rights of the master have in this case been unlawfully interfered with, and that there is no adequate remedy at law; he therefore refuses to dissolve the injunction.

It is a Southern man, Judge Jones, who states the lamentable inference to be drawn from the mistrial in the Turner peonage case at Montgomery. It will go out to the world, he says, that a white man cannot be convicted for oppression of a negro. Judge Jones did his duty. He went to the very verge of his judicial prerogative in charging the jury. He told them that if they believed the evidence presented by the prosecution, they must bring in a verdict of guilty; that even if they accepted only the admissions of the defendant, they must pronounce him guilty; and that they would perjure themselves if they took any other course. But, in spite of all, the jury stubbornly persisted in a disagreement. The cry of "politics" had been artfully raised by the Southern press. It had been insinuated that the North did not care about the punishment of the slave drivers, but only wished to make political capital out of a merely isolated and insignificant incident of Southern life. A leading Democratic State official was retained for the defence, with the apparent aim of playing upon the sectional and political prejudices of the jury. The result we see. It is the presiding judge himself who tells us that it is a frightful miscarriage of justice.

Mr. Edgar Gardner Murphy has for several years been rendering most valuable services to his State, Alabama, by carrying on an active campaign on behalf of better schools for blacks and whites, and against the iniquities of child labor in the mills of the South. He has now performed another important service by a letter to the Montgomery *Advertiser*, in which he correctly states that the "enemies" of the South are not those who print the facts about its ill-treatment of the negro, but those who would prevent the truth from coming out in such a matter as the peonage horrors. Mr. Murphy is able to take a far more optimistic view as to the extent of the peonage abuses than we can. But he manfully says that whether the new slave-drivers be "few or many, Alabama must be defended from them; their exposure and conviction is the best defence of the name and fortune of the State." Judge Jones, District Attorney Reese, and Mr. Murphy represent the best sentiment of the South to-day.

If lynching were to be expected anywhere, it would be in the Big Horn country, in which a mob has captured a jail and killed two murderers and a deputy sheriff. This region still has the manners and morals of the frontier and of the ranch. Owen Wister's Virginian, or some of his friends, must certainly have been in the mob of cowboys who could not wait for justice to take its course. But whoever would prognosticate where the next lynching will take place needs superhuman clairvoyance. North and South this defiance of the law, this readiness of hundreds to become murderers in order to punish others for greater or smaller crimes, manifests itself with increasing frequency. The "prominent citizens" of the South, the ruffians of Evansville, and the "bad men" of the frontier are in alliance, it appears, to defy the law. Even self-respecting and ordinarily peaceable farmers of this State are reported to have been affected by the mania. As for the victims, they are of all colors, and, we had almost said, of all conditions. Certainly the reasons for lynching are now embraced neither by murder nor by rape. Even an attempted crime is sufficient to make men stain their hands with the blood of a fellow human being. All civilizing forces in the community should be enlisted to bring home to every American citizen the infamy and the national danger of these crimes of the crowd.

When a man has reached the age of seventy and looks back over a career which includes three elections to the United States Senate, his maxims of statesmanship should be like apples of gold in pictures of silver; when for years he has been the leader of a great political party in New York State, his advice as to political success should be more precious than rubies. It was fitting, therefore, that when Senator Platt celebrated on July 15 his seventieth birthday, reporters should gather about him, eager to treasure up his lightest word. It was fitting also that the *Tribune* should print on its first page a picture of him in a bower of roses—a recognition of the warm friendship and tender confidence which have always marked the relations of that paper and Mr. Platt. As to statecraft Mr. Platt said: "I consider the in-

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sertion of the gold plank in the Republican platform of 1896 through my efforts as perhaps the greatest accomplishment I have to my credit." This remark is specially interesting in view of the fact that Mr. Platt arrived at St. Louis the day after the fair, when the gold plank had already been agreed upon by the leaders. As to politics, Mr. Platt laid down the following principles that he had always observed: "Perseverance, truthfulness, fidelity to friends, fairness to foes; above all, strict integrity." The result of this steady adherence to the highest ideals has been a beautiful and well-spent life, cheered by the devoted companionship of such lofty idealists as State Senator John Raines, Louis F. Payn, Frederick S. Gibbs, George W. Aldridge, and Lemuel Eli Quigg.

Lovers of coincidences will note that the day which saw the walking delegates expel three labor unions from the Board of Building Trades, saw also the grand jury hand down three true bills for blackmail against as many walking delegates. What this federation has lost in membership has been promptly made up to it in indictments. For the moment the building situation is more mixed than ever. The old Board of Building Trades, controlled by walking delegates, has lost seven of its strongest unions, comprising probably a majority of the workmen of this trade. These seven unions, with certain allied bodies, have taken the preliminary steps toward forming a new central organization. All have accepted the agreement for arbitration of disputes arrived at in conference between the employers and representatives of the unions. In the fight between this new body and the board presided over by the noble Parks, it seems certain that the latter will be beaten. This should mean a general resumption of work, and peace so long as the unions and the employers live up to the terms of the treaty.

When some new Walpole collects "Anecdotes of Painters" for our times, Whistler's name will easily lead the rest. He was a bristling personality, and many who never saw his pictures talked glibly of his famous suit against Ruskin and of his numerous achievements in "the gentle art of making enemies." His sallies, frequently of an indiscreet sort, were freely handed about the clubs and drawing-rooms, so that he became fairly legendary as a wit, somewhat at the expense of recognition as a painter. His painting was far more delicate than his wit. It had, at its best, something of the austerity of his master, Velasquez, and rarely anything of the sensational. The fact that eccentricity was charged against the various "nocturnes" and "effects" was merely evidences of the dulness of the critics. He was so far removed from the dominant tendencies of the time that he required a cult, and promptly built one up. It is doubtful if he could have succeeded among us. An artist of his somewhat recondite quality must perforce find his place in great capitals where people are avid of novelties. All the world knows his beautiful picture of his mother and the Carlyle, two of the most perfect productions of modern art; and his etchings, which were formerly a laughing-stock, are now disputed in the auction-room like Rembrandt's and Dürer's. His influence upon modern painting has been on the whole unfortunate, for his methods and point of view were too individual to be grasped by the host of imitators. He is dead at the height of his fame. For years past he has been justly acclaimed as one of the very few moderns who can bear comparison with the great masters of old.

The Mantchurian agreement seems to meet with scant praise in the Far East. Japan interprets the proposed opening of a free port on the Yalu as a hostile move against Korea, and promptly gives check by demanding of China the opening of the opposite port of Wiju. The British representative at the Korean capital has pressed the same request upon the Korean Government—a striking reminder of the vitality of the Anglo-Japanese alliance. Meanwhile, it is suggested rather maliciously that Russia has offered two free ports to the United States, in the full assurance that China will refuse to ratify the agreement. Should China consent to play the part of Jorkins for Russia, the whole situation will become unpleasantly tense. The great desideratum in the Far East is the definition of Russia's position. Frank declarations either of hostility or friendliness to Russia's ambitions in Mantchuria, on the part of China, England, or Japan, would do much to clear the diplomatic air.

The final term put on Monday to the sufferings of the wonderful old Pontiff came as a relief upon that strain which all the world felt in the presence of his death-bed, and which was getting to be almost too painful. Use and wont had not dulled the acute sympathy which had been going out to him from all nations, all classes, and all creeds. The fact that there could be, in the nature of the case, no hope of anything but a postponement of the inevitable hour, has served, we think, only to heighten the pathetic interest with which the fatal struggle has been watched. An extraordinary constitution, reinforced by every resource of medical skill, drew out the contest almost cruelly. Yet the qualities of the mind and character of Leo XIII. never appeared more lofty than in these last days of mortal weakness. Our estimate of the work that he has done we have already given. He will rank at least among the most famous Popes. Time will be needed for a full and correct measure of his public career; but his personal character already stands revealed as remarkable above that of many remarkable contemporaries.

Mr. Chamberlain has certainly stirred up formidable antagonists. The wits are against him almost to a man. *Punch* covers him with ridicule in every number; the newspaper caricaturists are fleshing their swords upon him; while the inimitable Mr. Gould in the *Westminster Gazette* sets everybody roaring with laughter at his clever cartoons with their mirth-provoking legends. Political satire has always been a great power in England, and any public man must suffer who is visited with such floods of it as Mr. Chamberlain, especially when he can make no return in kind. Nor does the heavy artillery of the press let up on him any more than the sharp-shooting skirmishers. The *Economist* and the *Spectator* array fact and argument against his proposals in a way peculiarly damaging, considering the friendly relations, hitherto, of those journals with the party in power. It is even said that Lord Salisbury, in his retirement, has spoken strongly against the Chamberlain plan, and especially against the Chamberlain idea of political ethics. The London correspondent of the Manchester *Guardian* asserts on authority that Lord Salisbury holds it impossible to tax food in England, and also maintains that Mr. Chamberlain should have resigned from the Cabinet after his Birmingham speech.

"Practically annihilated." Such is the epitaph on the "ordinary mosquito" at Ismaïlia, according to a recent report of the Suez Canal Company. The happy result was due to the application of the well-known methods of mosquito extermination urged by Major Ross. It is further stated, in this report of the Canal Company to the Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, that even the deadly malaria-bearing *Anopheles* has been attacked with great success. This will be good news, though no surprise, to the vivacious Major Ross, whose sprightly description of "mosquito brigades" moving upon the enemy of mankind must be familiar to many of our readers. What can be done in the tropics can certainly be done in the latitude of New York. One incidental good of the plague of the past three weeks has been the rousing of boards of health and local committees to renewed efforts against the mosquito. Science points the way to his extirpation, and thought and time and money applied to the work are as much called for as in any other form of public sanitation.

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WALL STREET.

In the closing days of April, 1901, and the early days of May, the Stock Exchange was confronted with the spectacle of prices for stocks pushed up to heights undreamed-of before, and at a pace for which no precedent in our history existed. The amount of stocks bought on the rise was as extraordinary as the rise itself. It seemed at times as if some mysterious and unknown force were driving the market up, doubling in a fortnight the valuation of stocks whose rating the market had made from experience of years, and establishing for American finance what were called "new precedents." Again and again, conservative, old-fashioned financiers declared that prices, already wildly out of relation to real conditions, could not possibly go higher. They continued, nevertheless, to rise until, but for an incident which has since turned out to be most fortunate, the whole public bade fair to be trooping into Wall Street to get its share in the benefits of the miracle.

It is not very long since 1901; but intelligent people understand at present the phenomena of that year. The secret was that the surplus credit fund of a prosperous country, and as much of the foreign credit fund as could be borrowed or begged on the basis of that prosperity, was converged on Wall Street through a hundred varying devices. Credit of railroad companies was pledged to buy up at high valuations the shares of other roads; credit of industrial concerns to buy up the shares of other industrials; credit of banks to equip promoting syndicates; and credit of syndicates and individuals to sustain artificial prices established on the markets. Only one consideration seemed to be overlooked, namely, that pay-day has to come, and that, the more reckless the borrower, the sooner, usually, such a day of reckoning arrives.

What Wall Street has been witnessing during the past week is a singularly perfect complement to the events which we have recalled. Stocks have been falling to depths which, a few months since, would have been pronounced impossible. Prices of dividend-earning shares have been almost cut in two. Again and again, as in 1901, experienced financiers have declared that the stock market was absurdly low, and that it could not possibly go lower. Yet, after each prediction, a mysterious force which none of the experts could measure or define, drove prices down still further. Nor does the analogy or antithesis stop here. Precisely as in May, 1901, the light-headed part of the community inferred that certain financiers had discovered the philosopher's stone, and were benevolently making every one rich by stroke of pen, so in July, 1903, the same profound observers grasp at the notion that malign and potent capitalists are "marking down prices" to help out their own nefarious schemes.

With all the mystery which has surrounded each of these episodes at the time, there is no obscurity at all in what has really happened. The scheme of inflation by reckless use of credit broke down, as such schemes invariably do, when the lenders asked for the real capital. Nothing is more familiar, in all the history of finance, than such occurrences. It is only when such an undertaking, by the portentous magnitude of the liabilities involved—a South Sea bubble, a Mississippi Company, a railway mania in the forties, or an Argentine exploitation in the nineties—rises to heights and falls to depths which draw the wondering gaze of the world at large, that we treat it as a landmark in history.

We presume, in spite of the darkness which envelops the recent collapse in prices, that the people who have suffered chiefly are the ones who reaped their golden harvest during the wild days of 1901. If this were all, we should merely have an example of the law of compensation. Unfortunately, it is not all, and never can be all, so long as such adventures are involved with the ramifications of outside credit. The most astonishing spectacle of the present time is the arrival in the money market of great and powerful corporations, sound in resources and high in traditional credit, only to find that the investor will not lend to them except on terms the most exorbitant, and that the banks will discount their notes-of-hand only at rates which a retail tradesman would lately have rejected as preposterous.

We have no quarrel with the railways for planning to use the capital thus applied for in extensions and improvements. We do not doubt that its use, as planned, is generally wise and in some cases necessary. The two typical instances of hard-pressed railway borrowers have been the Pennsylvania and the New York Central, and we are very sure that, if the Pennsylvania were to abandon its tunnel project and the New York Central the promised reconstruction of its track approaches, there would be something like public protest. Yet it is precisely for these purposes that the money has just been wrung out of reluctant Wall Street.

A more pertinent and pressing question is, What had happened to the mental processes of the people who used up the country's credit fund and its foreign credit in haphazard stock-promotion enterprises, or, to be more polite, in "community-of-interest" schemes, that they threw thus completely from their reckoning the needs of the industrial future? The teaching of the past was absolutely plain. It is, that every great forward movement of national prosperity must be accompanied and followed by greatly expanded requirements for plant and facilities with which to conduct and profit by that prosperity. Our promoting financiers acted as if the only use for the country's increased capital was to inflate the valuation of plants and facilities which already existed, and in this process they absorbed, not merely the capital then pressing on the market, but, by anticipation, the capital which should accrue in the next half-dozen years. We have already seen the results of such finance in the case of the new "industrials"; last week's costly loans tell the story for the railroads.

How much further the footing of the bill will have to go, we certainly do not feel competent to predict. Ramifications of credit are so extensive that general tendencies in a money centre are usually slow in developing elsewhere. It needs no prophetic power, however, to perceive that when borrowers like the Union Pacific and the Lake Shore are paying exorbitant rates in the open money market, it is a time for smaller borrowers, present and prospective, to exercise the greatest caution in all their plans.

"NERVE" IN DIPLOMACY.

Russia's refusal to consider or even to receive the Jewish petition inevitably leaves the Administration in the position of one having made a false step. It is obvious now that the proper order was not followed. The President gave it out that he had decided to forward the petition to the Czar. Then, as a second thought, came what should have been his first thought, and he decided on a preliminary inquiry whether it would be agreeable to the Czar Nicholas to receive an appeal from American citizens. It now having been ascertained that it would not be, the President is powerless to go further. The only awkwardness of this is that he had somewhat rashly undertaken to go further. As a display of good will and of hearty sympathy with an outraged people, the incident has been another of the President's successes. Diplomatically, we cannot see that it adds to his laurels.

We think Judge Brewer did the President only an ill turn when he asserted, in an address last week at Milwaukee, that Mr. Roosevelt had "the nerve" to send on to the Czar petitions signed in this country. This is but to give an unhappy turn to the whole affair. If we are thinking more of our own magnificent audacity than we are of really doing any good by its display, we lay ourselves open to both ridicule and reproach. Yet the Judge's phrase comes forcibly to remind us of the real ends and the successful methods of diplomatic intercourse among the nations; as also to reveal to us how the current discussions have mixed things up. Those who are most shocked by the horrible persecutions of the Jews in Rus-

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sia, and who are most anxious to make their sympathy with all oppressed races effective—and we yield to no one in either particular—must yet admit it to be their duty to choose their measures wisely.

Now "nerve," we remark, is as much out of place in diplomacy as it is in cultivated society. By nerve we understand something irregular, presuming, perhaps offensive. The man whom Coleridge observed in the inn, and who, in a burst of irritation, smeared mustard on the plate of a recalcitrant stranger, crying out, "D—n it, Sir! You must and shall eat mustard!"—had no lack of "nerve." And if the chief end of diplomacy, or of human intercourse in general, were to shock people, to violate the conventions, to be self-assertive, to score off others triumphantly, then the more nerve put into it the better. But, luckily, the art diplomatic moves in no such boorish fashion. Nations, to get on with each other, have to employ the same means of maintaining friendly and agreeable relations as individuals if they are not to be forever by the ears.

We can easily conceive that President Roosevelt, in undertaking to forward to the Czar a numerously signed petition in favor of justice to the Jewish subjects of Russia, was prompted by humane and admirable motives. His visitors got on his weak side—or his strong side, if you please—his chivalrous love of fair play, and affection for the under-dog. And so, though both he and Secretary Hay had publicly asserted the obviously correct view that this Government, as such, had no shadow of right to make representation to the Russian Government on the subject of the Kishenev massacres, he later agreed impulsively to forward the petition in his personal capacity. Probably it seemed to him the most natural thing in the world to do. Is it not a neighborly act, done every day, to serve as intermediary in the transmission of messages and letters? "To the Czar. Kindness of Theodore Roosevelt." That was, apparently, the President's idea of the way in which the envelope would be addressed and the whole business dispatched. We do not, with Judge Brewer, see in this an exhibition of "nerve." It was, rather, evidence of a certain valorous inexpertness. Better advised, Mr. Roosevelt decided to ask first if the Czar were willing to receive a respectful petition from American citizens, and, if the answer was in the negative, to let the whole matter drop.

Let no one say that we argue for a rule which would forbid one nation to remonstrate with another. Nations are doing that all the time, and are doing it with perfect diplomatic propriety. But they always have to show that their own interest is somehow involved in the subject of representations. It may be a tariff law, for example. That is purely an affair of internal legislation, but if it has the effect of prejudicing the trade or the treaty rights of other nations, they may properly bring the matter to the attention of the responsible Government. Even when, as in the case of our diplomatic approaches to Spain in the matter of Cuba, the element of injustice or inhumanity comes in, the protesting Powers are careful to show, as were both President Cleveland and Mr. McKinley, that the injury to their own people is the main ground of intervention. That is the broad distinction always to be made, in all dealings of civilized and Christian Powers with each other. No one pretends that it exists in the present case. Indeed, both Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Hay have explained that it does not.

It cannot be denied that there is a sense in which it takes a great deal of "nerve" for America to rebuke Russia, even by implication, for the outbreak of brute passions. We are just now unable to cast a stone at the most lawless country on earth. How exposed to retort or to sarcasm we leave ourselves in that way can, perhaps, be appreciated only by one who reads the foreign press. Here, for example, is what M. de Cassagnac says in *L'Autorité:*

> "When a country makes a common practice of lynch law, and amuses itself by covering negroes with oil and burning them alive, it only excites general laughter by taking up with such improvised humanity the defence of the Jews of Kishenev."

That kind of rebuke would be unpleasantly multiplied upon our head if the champions of "nerve" in diplomacy were to be given free swing.

THE REOPENED DOOR.

The method by which the United States has negotiated for free ports in Mantchuria is instructive. Secretary Hay and the Russian chargé d'affaires met in Washington and came to terms for China. Their preliminary agreement has been sent to Pekin for confirmation by the Emperor, whose assent is taken for granted. In other words, while asserting the integrity of the Chinese Empire, Mr. Hay practically recognizes Russia as suzerain of all northern China. So the Mantchurian question has passed out of the political into the commercial stage. Russia is in full possession of Mantchuria to-day, although she is technically restoring a province or so a year to China. Unless Japan wishes to take the great hazard of challenging the Russian claim, and strikes quickly, Mantchuria will soon be more Russian than the Duchy of Finland. By a significant coincidence, as the Russians are granting the trade concessions for which Mr. Hay has been battling, it is reported that the conference of Mantchurian officials at Port Arthur has advised the appointment of a Russian viceroy over the provinces which, barring "obstacles," Russia has promised to evacuate next September.

Rightly to weigh the value of Mr. Hay's treaty, it should be realized that he probably maintains the diplomatic fiction of a Chinese Mantchuria merely as a pious hope, and as a technical advantage in negotiating with the most slippery of Foreign Offices. What Mr. Hay is after is trade privileges. He has exhausted all the resources of diplomacy to force Russia to grant free entry in Mantchuria to all the world. He very properly insists upon all the commercial advantages that he could have obtained from China, and, while not formally opposing the steps which lead to Russian occupation, he has valiantly opposed all measures that tend to give Russia a monopoly of the trade of North China. Here it is that the dogma of the integrity of the Chinese empire becomes a very useful fiction. The Russians are thoroughly committed to it. In 1901 they cheerfully withdrew, largely owing to Mr. Hay's protest, the treaty which would have given their "lease" the value of a deed in fee simple. Again, in the Mantchurian Convention of April, 1902, they agreed successively to withdraw from the various Mantchurian provinces. They have shown every disposition to humor those who were stiff on the point of Chinese suzerainty, but have quietly built railroads, erected custom houses, and discriminated against non-Russian imports by railway rates, and by collecting a kind of *likin* tax on goods in transport. Content with the substance of a trade monopoly and political control, they have gladly allowed it to be called a mere extension of their sphere of influence; but the various protests in behalf of Chinese sovereignty have been incidentally the means of pinning Russia down to trade agreements.

During all this time Mr. Hay has protested against the closing of Mantchurian ports, and has with unwearied importunity worked for the "open door." Theoretically, the door has always been open. The Russians in 1900 went on record as to the principle, and subsequently they have given Mr. Hay ample assurances that, certain obstacles removed, the door would be open to stay. To-day he simply has one more promise. Yet it is a considerable gain to bring the Russians to so definite an action as that of naming two free ports, even if no time has been set for the actual opening. It is suggested, possibly by a wit, that the ceremony will follow on September 8 next, the agreed date of Russia's final evacuation. The value of the ports of Mukden and Ta-Tung-Kao is difficult to estimate. Mukden is the great caravan centre for Mantchuria and Eastern Siberia, but unless such feeding ports as New Chwang, Port Arthur, and Dalny are also made free (as regards products in transit for Mukden), the value of free entry at Muk-

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den only comes to the remission of any transit tax there levied. The concession will be quite an empty one unless the seaport Ta-Tung-Kao be connected with Mukden by railway. This will require time, and time is a famous collaborator of the Russians. It will compel the construction of a railway to the estuary of the Yalu, and if the "civil buildings," as is not uncommon in Mantchuria, should assume the look of fortresses, Russia would be in a comfortable position of control at the mouth of the Yalu, and at a strategic vantage point as regards Korea. That is, by the concession of a free port, Russia will go amicably where otherwise she would hardly have dared to advance so soon. Accordingly, it must be also a wit who suggests in the press agency dispatches that Ta-Tung-Kao was chosen in deference to the desire of Japan.

And yet, with all the mental reservations which the compact implies, Secretary Hay is to be heartily congratulated upon the conclusion of a most difficult and vexatious negotiation. In a sense, the interested powers have rather shabbily thrown their case upon his hands; where Germany has been cynical and England despairing, they have left the difficult rôle of optimistic endeavor to Mr. Hay. His failure he would have had to bear alone, his success was certain to be their profit. On these conditions and with rather little intelligent support from his own countrymen, Mr. Hay has crossed swords with the shrewdest blades of modern diplomacy, and has scored his touch handsomely. He alone really grasped the significance of the Russian occupation of Mantchuria, and saw the danger of shrinking markets. Diplomacy has seldom taken so long a view and foreseen so accurately the needs of posterity. This will be remembered to Mr. Hay's lasting credit, even if the technical triumph of to-day should seem smaller when the new agreement is interpreted at the custom houses of Mantchuria.

THE MAYOR ON CITY FRANCHISES.

It is evident that Mayor Low is now fully alive to the necessity of protecting the city in its franchise rights. At a meeting of the Rapid Transit Commission a few days ago he blocked a scheme to hurry through a hastily prepared franchise for another North River tunnel. At Thursday's meeting the same franchise, now in printed form, came up for consideration; he again refused his sanction or vote, and announced some exceedingly plain truths bearing upon the relation of the public to local transportation companies. He particularly objected to a clause in the contract permitting the sale of the franchise at will by the grantees, insisting that for such a transaction the consent of the city should be required. This position of his is thoroughly sound. One of the principal difficulties in forcing proper service from transportation companies has been the disappearance of the original responsible company in some combination or holding concern. Among the excuses made by the Metropolitan for not giving the transfers required by law was the statement that its system is now operated by a small company located in Westchester, whose only tangible possessions are a mile of track, a car barn, and four old-fashioned cars.

Mr. Low also proposed that the city retain power to order better service whenever it saw fit, subject to review by the Appellate Division. This is only to recognize the principle of necessary public control of transportation facilities. It is fair to assume that the Mayor has taken his stand, not only in regard to a North River tunnel franchise of comparatively trifling importance, but in regard to transportation franchises in general, including the most vital of all, the subway extensions. It is plain that he now realizes that it makes little or no difference what provisions are put in the franchise, charter, or contract, so long as the means of enforcing them are wanting. He asks that the burden of proof be shifted from the city to the public-service corporations. This is well, but does the Mayor go far enough? Would a clause in the contract giving the city power to order changes in service or equipment, with an appeal by the railway company to the Appellate Division, really be effective Or would it cause more litigation, during which the company might please itself as to the sort of service rendered?

This, clearly, requires consideration. It would be most unfortunate, certainly, ready to revolt as we are at the helpless condition in which we find ourselves, if we were to seek and secure a change only to discover that under it we were still unable to command the service which we require. It is uncertain, to say the least, how far the courts would be willing to pass upon and enforce the orders issued by the city under such a statute. Our courts pretty steadily decline executive functions, and, when they do not refuse them altogether, it must be admitted that they perform them rather indifferently. Nor do they always deem it wise, apparently, to hold public-service corporations to the strict letter of the law or of their bond.

The Auchincloss case, for example, has been in litigation for more than ten years. In that the plaintiff prayed for an injunction against the Manhattan Railroad Company prohibiting it from operating its third track on the Ninth Avenue road, on the ground that the company never obtained the right to lay or operate this track. The Appellate Division, sustaining the contentions of the plaintiff and sending the case back to Special Term for final adjustment, clearly held that the company had not acquired the right to the third track. But Judge Truax, at Special Term, while awarding extensive damages to the plaintiff, refused to interfere with the operation of the third track, on the ground that to do so would "impose great hardship on the defendant company and would curtail their ability to serve the public." This is doubtless sound enough legal doctrine, but the counsel who had conducted this litigation on behalf of the plaintiff has exhibited to the public a company enjoying a valuable right for which it pays not one cent to the city, which it never acquired by any legal means whatever, and with which the courts refuse to interfere (except in the matter of damages to individuals) because, in the process of time, the service under this unauthorized and unpaid-for franchise has become a public necessity.

We do not cite this instance to criticise the ruling of the court. On the contrary, we agree that the public would be the chief sufferer if the company were ordered to remove its third track. But it illustrates how even the public necessities hinder the city from holding transportation companies to proper performance, when once absolute rights in or under the streets have been granted away. And the lesson of that seems to be, not to grant away such rights, even with an attempt to retain control of the service by means of an experiment with initiatory orders in the hands of the municipal Government, subject to judicial review. There is a simpler means than that, and one which runs on all fours with experience and ordinary business principles. This is the short-time lease under contract. By such a system, public control can be rendered truly effective. Companies failing to give the requisite quality of service would simply lose their contract, like any other unfaithful servant, and be replaced.

ART SCHOOLS.

It has frequently been noted that art declines somewhat in the ratio of conscious effort to further it. The great periods knew only masters and disciples; the times of decadence abound in academies and permanent schools. At present the fact may easily be verified by any one who will visit successively the Royal Academy at London, the Paris Salon, and the current exhibitions at Amsterdam and The Hague. London and Paris have elaborate systems for producing painters. Before those who study at the Academy schools or the École des Beaux-Arts, lie all manner of official honors and material rewards. The academicians of either country enjoy a traditional prestige and a corresponding social position. Holland, on the contrary, does next to nothing for her painters. They study in small bands

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of disciples about the older masters, they wander through the schools of France and Germany—in short, like Topsy, they just grow, without the fostering care of academies and ministries of fine arts.

Comparing the painting of Holland with the academic production of France and England, one is struck with the sobriety and excellence of the Dutch school. There is, first of all, a genuine continuation of the tradition of the seventeenth century, which rests, not upon organized authority, but upon the temperament of individual artists. The level of craftsmanship is higher than will be found elsewhere. There is a refreshing absence of incompetence and eccentricity. These painters know their subjects—chiefly the landscape and peasant life of their own country—and know how to make paint assume the look of light, air, and life. Yet there is nothing backward about the school. It has freely profited by all the recent innovations, impressionistic or otherwise, without yielding to the eccentricities in vogue. Everywhere one notes good judgment and sound accomplishment—that is, precisely the qualities which academies are founded to promote.

How ill academies do their work to-day is shown in London and Paris. Go through the Royal Academy or the Salon and your eye will infallibly reject the native product and rest upon some quiet bit by an American, Dutch, or Scandinavian painter. For more than a hundred years the Royal Academy has been the custodian of British art, and the result is stupidity, ineptitude, mediocrity. For nearly two hundred years the Salon has been subsidized by the State, and the result is incredible vulgarity. The three thousand pictures annually exhibited by these two academies have very little to do with art. In England they are painted to be sold to a sentimental and untrained public; in France they are painted to be exhibited to a calloused and mistrained public. In London the official encouragement of art has seemingly produced an entire obscuration of talent; in Paris it has drawn a great supply of talent into vulgar ways of seeing and painting. In one case art languishes from too little skill, in the other it perishes from skill perverted.

Moreover, the saving remnant of French and British painters have held aloof from the academies. Indeed, the various secessions from Munich to New York are so many signs of discontent with the cut-and-dried methods of the schools. And as these revolutionary bodies become formalized they in turn drive out the best spirits, so that the more accomplished artists are generally to be found isolated from the craft, or joined in small congenial groups. It appears that we have to do with a secular process by which art ever renews itself only on condition of renouncing official patronage. That would seem the moral of Holland, France, and England to-day.

As usual, the trouble lies at the root—in the art schools. Never in any healthy period of art has an apprentice spent years in making "studies." From the first the pupil was taught to do things that were useful. If it were only laying in a background or tracing a cartoon, his earliest efforts contributed something to the art of his time, and his equipment was gained not in profitless competition with those who were no better than himself, but in daily contact with a great master. All the studies and investigations which are comparatively dead in themselves, he made under guidance and in view of genuine problems. To-day men work seven or ten or more years for the great stake of artistic success; if they fail, that time is relatively thrown away, and they are subjected to a kind of humiliation which befalls no other class of earnest workers. Under the old conditions of discipleship, every art-student had the satisfaction of serving usefully, and those to whom greatness was denied at least found naturally their places as artist artisans and the like. Such tragedy of utter failure as we see not uncommonly to-day was hardly known until the great art mills were invented to sweep in those who had no vocation, and grind them out half-trained or mistrained. To be sure, wholesale methods have replaced discipleship in many other branches of study; but in these it has not had the same stupefying results. You may make tolerable doctors or lawyers by machine methods; the training of the artist is peculiarly an individual matter and not to be entrusted to the syndicates.

Probably no M. Combes of painting will expropriate the art schools of the world and scatter the "professors." Very likely it would be better if such a tyrant would compel a return to discipleship. In any case it should be understood that no more great art schools are needed. The rumored National Gallery at Washington will only add to the bad art in the world if it sets up classes on the conventional lines. Before any millionaire endows a teaching academy, let him go to Holland and see how art fares when patrons and the State observe a wise passiveness, and art shifts for itself.

SOUTH AFRICAN CONDITIONS.

At the time of the capitulation after the Boer war, Gen. Louis Botha took a singularly wise and conciliatory attitude. It was he more than any other who urged the Boers to accept the new government cheerfully, and was constant in expressions of confidence in the liberal intentions of Lord Milner and the British Colonial Office. Thus it is Botha's reputation for moderation which gives to his recent manifesto denouncing the colonial government as despotic a peculiar weight. It is even said that he is going to England to plead the cause of his countrymen.

From Gen. Botha's letter, and many other sources, it appears that there is one prime obstacle to reconstruction in South Africa, namely, Milnerism. Lord Milner has eminent abilities, but he is and must be *persona non grata* in the old Boer territory. His relations with the Boers had become so thoroughly embittered that it was a mistake to retain him as Governor-General. Recently he has appointed many Oxford graduates to office. These young men bring to their duties abundant ignorance; they are prone to treat the Boers with condescension, and in many cases they are both inefficient and unpopular. Time will do much to remedy these deficiencies, but, in the meantime, when it is above all things important to conciliate the Boers, they get the impression that the Government neither understands them nor cares for their welfare. It is a sorry sequel to Mr. Chamberlain's visit of conciliation that South Africa is to be kept a crown colony indefinitely and garrisoned strongly at great expense.

Possibly a graver danger than that of being ruled by Oxford graduates and "single men in barracks" is that of being exploited mercilessly by the great syndicates. Although the powers of the British South Africa Company have been abridged, there is still a far too intimate connection between it and the colonial government. The same may be said of Mr. Beit's diamond monopoly, and of the Transvaal gold interests. For example, the great diamond fields recently discovered at Elandsfontein—a possible rival to Kimberley—have been closed to individual prospectors by decree. Some 4,000 claims which would have been worked immediately are tied up until the De Beers syndicate absorbs them all; and the reason offering for abolishing the "pegging" right is that "it creates gambling in valuable assets." Naturally such gambling is detestable to the diamond monopolists whose game the Government is making a sure thing. The political power of this company may be measured by the twenty-odd papers it controls in South Africa.

Mr. Chamberlain, in his recent tour through the "illimitable veldt," did not get as far as Rhodesia. Had he done so he would have found that stubborn parochial problems turn up even on the fringe of empire. We have before us a little pamphlet entitled 'The Reform Movement in Rhodesia,' printed at Salisbury by a committee of prominent citizens. It is a complaint against the oppressive freight rates charged by the Beira and Mashonaland Railway. This line, though nominally independent of the Chartered Company, runs in community of interest with it. The rates charged for the 374 miles' haul are preposterous, averaging

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three times the rates levied by the Uganda and the Port Elizabeth-Johannesburg railways, and more than twice those of the Delagoa Bay Railway. Take a typical example: It costs about $63 to send a ton of spades and shovels from Beira to Salisbury, as against $23 for a similar distance on the Delagoa Bay Road. Again, five tons of flour (about 50 barrels) costs $243 from the steamer to Salisbury, while eleven horses are charged $258 for the 188-mile haul from Gwelo to Salisbury. What these prohibitive rates mean to the hardy settlers who some dozen years ago followed Cecil Rhodes's star to the Zambesi valley, may be imagined when it is recalled that the cattle have largely perished of the rinderpest, and the people are dependent upon imported food. "At a hotel table in Salisbury one finds scarcely an indigenous product, from the bread baked from foreign flour to the ham from English pigs." But cattle, and almost food, are denied them by the South African Railways Trust.

It would be easy to point out that the Beira Railway is pursuing a short-sighted policy in bleeding a new community to the discouragement of its growth; it is not so easy to explain the action of a government that charters a railroad and makes no provision for an initial agreement as to rates or subsequent control of them. It can hardly be wondered at when the Salisbury committee says that the disease undermining Rhodesia takes the form of "a fine Imperialism degenerated at length into commercial avarice."

Paul LeRoy-Beaulieu pointed out recently in the *Économiste Français* that it would take from three to five years to put the Transvaal gold industry on a satisfactory basis. Much trouble may come before that time. Great Britain may be called on as guarantor of the South African loan, and to disaffected Boers may be added an increasing host of discontented pioneers of English blood. The incidents of the new diamond fields and of the Mashonaland Railway show clearly that South Africa needs a government which will hold the syndicates in check, and prevent at least the more oppressive forms of commercial exploitation. Lord Milner has signally failed in the task, and it is a question if this severance of administration from the activities of the various chartered companies is so much as dreamed of in Mr. Chamberlain's philosophy.

LEO XIII.

Leo. XIII., Vincent Joachim Pecci, was born in the little Italian town of Carpineto, a miniature fortress of about 5,000 inhabitants, hidden high among the Apennines. It was at one time a place of some importance, and was destroyed by the Romans. In the Middle Ages the Conti, the Caetani, and other powerful families held sway over it. Later it was a duchy under the Aldobrandini family; but, for the last three centuries, its most important people have been the Pecci, who have here a large estate and a country-seat of some pretensions. Originally they came from Siena. According to a monograph compiled by the present Pope in 1832, when a young man of twenty-two, the first Pecci of whom record remains was a certain Benvenuto, who was a Knight of Malta and was born in 1340. Later there is mention of a Pecci in Spain. In the sixteenth century, Bartolomeo Pecci was deputed by Siena to ask Pope Eugene IV. to canonize St. Bernard of Siena, and not only succeeded in his mission, but was made Chevalier. During the fifteenth-century troubles of the papacy, the Pecci espoused the Medici cause and emigrated to the papal dominions, settling in Carpineto in 1534. The head of the family was then Antonio, whose son was made Governor of Foligno by Pope Clement VII. In the succeeding three centuries the Pecci family furnished many men of distinction to Rome and Italy. At the beginning of the last century the head of the family was Ludovico Pecci, who, like his father, was a soldier, and became a colonel under Napoleon. There is a good portrait of him now at Carpineto. This follower of Napoleon was the father of Joseph, the Cardinal, and of Joachim, future papal nuncio to Belgium, future Bishop of Perugia for thirty-two years, with a constantly growing reputation for tact and courage. Almost insensibly, his place in the Church of Italy grew in importance. His course during the critical years from 1848 to 1870 was marked by moderation and wisdom. There was a patriarchal simplicity about his administration which had its effect upon friend and foe, and it was no surprise to Italy when Pius IX., who had made him a Cardinal in 1853, named him "Camerlengo," the officer to have charge of the affairs of the Vatican and of the conclave called to elect a new Pope. On the 7th of February, 1878, the Pope died, and Mgr. Pecci took charge of affairs at the Vatican. His election followed almost as a matter of course, and he entered at once upon an office for which he had many fortunate and some admirable qualifications.

The ruling passion of Leo XIII. was for the assertion and the restoration of his rights as a temporal sovereign. His democratic sympathies, in which some have found the most characteristic feature of his pontificate, were far less distinguished; and while it would be most ungracious to think of them as means adapted to a personal or ecclesiastical end, it does not appear that they ever stood in the way of the purpose to which he held from first to last with a singular persistency and with much incautious zeal, endeavoring to compel all Catholic statesmen to subordinate their political energy to the welfare of the Roman See, and identifying this welfare with the fiction of its temporal power. Always the political controlled and modified the ecclesiastical and religious tendency. Thus, when the German Catholics were ready to defeat the septennate military bill on which Bismarck had set his heart, they were suddenly ordered to support it at the sacrifice of their convictions; while a little later they were castigated for supporting Bismarck in a course which was deserving of their patriotic adhesion. The "godless schools" of Italy were frequently condemned, while the more drastic secularism of France in educational matters was allowed to go unscathed. The French encyclical of February 16, 1892, was received with general indignation, and a policy was set on foot for evading its provisions; but a second papal declaration made it clear that French Catholics were expected to be eager partisans of the *de facto* government, whatever the *de jure* aspect of the case might be. In the meantime Russia's opposition to the Triple Alliance secured for her absolutism the same consideration as that accorded for the same reason to republican France, while the adhesion of Austria-Hungary to the Alliance earned for that stronghold of Catholicism the utmost severity of the papal frown, and encouraged internecine feuds that are now gnawing at the vitals of the national life. And all of these tendencies, so obvious elsewhere, culminated in Italy. The Triple Alliance was anathema to Leo, not as an alliance against the strength of Russia, but as an alliance favorable to the weakness of Italy in the European family.

It would be a grave mistake to seek the characteristic quality of Leo XIII. in his democratic or socialistic affiliations, or in his practical activities as a sanitarian reformer. All honor for the aqueducts and hospitals which he built and for his genuine sympathy with poor and miserable men! But these things did not assure to him the modern spirit. His idea of the temporal sovereignty of the papacy was of course a mediæval idea. The methods he pursued in the vain hope of making that idea a reality were also mediæval. There are those who think and speak of him as a great statesman and diplomatist. They rank him with Bismarck and Cavour. But whatever he attained upon their lines by his astuteness and his pertinacity, and however great his influence upon the contemporary politics of Europe, it cannot but appear that the main object of his pursuit was an unreal thing, while, had the energy he spent upon it been used in strengthening his spiritual supremacy, the gain both for his office and the millions of his people would have been incalculably great. The enthusiasts for lost causes have been many, and he takes his place among them with something of peculiar dignity, so majestic was the historical reality the shade of which he clutched with eager hands, and so evidently might he have been a worthy successor to the temporalities of Hildebrand and Innocent and Boniface if he had not been born some centuries too late.

His pontificate was, nevertheless, in its general aspect, much more liberal than his predecessor's, and had a different course and tendency from that which, beginning with a liberal policy, soon became timid, reactionary, and conservative, and on the dogmatic side carried matters so far with its decrees of the Immaculate Conception and Papal Infallibility that Leo XIII. could carry them no further if he would. It may well be doubted if he would have carried them so far if he had had the opportunity of Pius, and it is certainly very significant that one of the first acts of Leo was to make Newman a Cardinal, as if to reward him for his opposition to the dogma of infallibility, or condone the offence, while Manning, who had been foremost in urging the declaration and subsequently one of

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the highest in the counsels of Pius, passed with the accession of Leo into comparative neglect.

The official career of Leo in the Vatican presents many interesting phases; his concessions to Bismarck in the closing scenes of the *Kulturkampf* and Falk-laws agitation, his relations with Poland and Russia, his subjection of the French bishops to the secularism of the republican régime, his unfortunate interference with Hungarian affairs, his yet more unfortunate *De Parnellio* letter, which, but for the prompt and energetic interposition of Cardinal Manning, might have made an Irish schism from the Church, his arbitration in the affair of the Caroline Islands (his most obvious contribution to that "peace on earth" which Christianity is supposed to encourage and advance), his dealings with the American-school question and the vagaries of Dr. McGlynn, and in general with the social-economic problems of the time in his encyclical *Rerum Novarum*. Always more interested in practical affairs, or in what he conceived to be such, than in dogmatics, his elaborate encyclical on Biblical inspiration and criticism was foreign to his genius and consequently more, if possible, of a mere *brutum fulmen* than any other. To the higher criticism it extended a cordial greeting, and advised its hospitable entertainment among Catholic teachers and scholars, but with the understanding that certain foregone conclusions of the more general sort must be the test and goal.

This letter and the social-economic one, together with that of June, 1893, on the American-school question, afford our best materials for the study of Papal infallibility as a working theory. They seem to show that it tends irresistibly to triteness or to an Hegelian union of contradictories. Take the American encyclical of June, 1893. Following the plan of Archbishop Ireland, the decision *Tolerari potest* in 1892 seemed to acknowledge frankly the right of State control over parochial schools. So did the Archbishops' resolutions of November, 1892, dictated by Satolli, who was evidently following instructions straight from Rome. But these resolutions were radically opposed to the decisions of the Plenary Council of Baltimore (1884), which since their passage had been the programme of the high and dry Roman Catholics, whose coryphæus was the late Archbishop Corrigan. Such being the situation, what was the course of Leo XIII. in his encyclical in 1893? He had a good word for the Baltimore decisions, and he approved the resolutions of the Archbishops which allowed the right of Roman Catholic parents to educate their children in secular schools, and the right of State control for the parochial. Here was a Barmecide feast for the high-church party and a substantial meal for Archbishop Ireland and his friends.

THE AMERICAN PHILOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

July 19, 1903.

The American Philological Association has come and gone. It came without observation; it should not go without notice. It was the thirty-fifth annual session. The place was New Haven, the host was Yale University, the time was July 7, 8, 9. The sittings were held in the Trowbridge Library, in the Marquand Chapel, and in Osborn Hall. The Trowbridge Library is dedicated, or abandoned, to works of theology. Philology sat in the midst and left the shelves unmolested.

There were about sixty members in attendance. Some made but a short stay, about forty endured to the end. The public is always admitted; but the public does not seek philologic learning in July, even in New Haven. Some inquirers there were, however. A few venerable heads gave attention, and there were some women. The Association counts thirty-nine feminine names on its roll, with perhaps a few more concealed under epicene given names or initials.

There were forty-three papers on the printed programme. They were not all read from paper. They were often spoken, in summary, in selection, or as the bee sips. Some were well spoken, out of a full mind and a practised mouth; yet the most eloquent speeches (and there were several eloquent speeches) were read from manuscript. The older men seem to prefer a pedestrian muse, and are most at ease in peripatetic confabulation. They abound in "excursions," but they raise no "alarums"; and no trumpet is heard in the wings. The Association, it is well known, is very intimate with the Greeks and Romans. More than two-thirds of the papers were concerned with Greek and Roman matters. It is the annual rule, or custom; nor can any fault be found with these papers as to their subject—they are certainly "parleyings with certain people of importance in their day." Yet the Association is expressly general. Its object, as stated in the Constitution, is "the advancement and diffusion of philological knowledge." These words recall the principle of the Smithsonian Institution, "the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men." The Association has the same object, within the field of philology. The other philological bodies of national range express in their names their chosen divisions of philology—the American Oriental Society, the Archæological Institute, the Modern Language Association, the American Dialect Society. Local philological societies, too, of general or specific scope, are rather numerous. All this is well. These divisions and fences are useful, and promote accuracy. Some languages are kittle cattle, and require a close pen; but the philologist should have the key of the whole farm. The specialist should range at times abroad; and the generalist, if there is such a person, is nothing if he is always on the range.

The Philological Association in its earlier years opened its gates to all philology, Greek, Latin, Sanskrit, Hebrew, Arabic, Celtic, African and even "Amerindian," though that word had not then been added to the vocabulary. The earlier volumes of the Transactions contain papers on Algonkin, Cymric, Tupi, and English; nor have these and their like been wholly neglected since. Yet the Greek and the Latin, the basis of all philology and its very vocabulary, have always been in the fore. The very first paper printed in the Transactions is one by James Hadley, "On the Nature and Theory of the Greek Accent" (1869, not settled yet in this year of grace, 1903). It is odd, however, to see that Latin does not appear in any phase in the Transactions until the fourth volume, and that the Latin subjunctive delays its emergence until the tenth volume.

But to return to the session just ended. The Greek papers were seventeen. Four or five were grammatic. The most entertaining paper in this sometimes gloomy galley was Professor Humphreys's confabulation entitled "Notes on Greek Grammar," being good-natured comments on other men's notes in Greek grammars. One illuminating note was his quotation of the statesman who declared in a speech that "he had always endeavored to tread firmly the narrow path that separates right from wrong." A local paper made it appear that this principle (which seems to be best adapted to the meridian of Washington) is Professor Humphreys's golden rule for his own guidance. There were grammatic disquisitions by Professors Green, Harry, Tolman, and others. There were papers on Greek metrics, by Professor Miller on "Hephaestion and the Resolution of the Greek Comic Trimeter," and by Professor Magoun, who discussed with dissent the question, "Is the Present Theory of Greek Elision Sound?" And there were other metric discussions, which, nevertheless, here "versu dicere non est."

Of more literary character was the annual address of the President, Prof. Charles Forster Smith, on "Character-drawing in Thucydides," a criticism and eulogy of the literary methods of that historian. With this may be mentioned Professor Perrin's genial discussion of "The Fiscal Joke of Pericles," the joke being a little item "for necessary expenses" which Pericles included in his war accounts, and which the Grand Old Party of those days passed with a wink and a chuckle. Both believed in moral suasion.

The Romans came next, Professors Rolfe, Wilson, Earle, F. G. Moore, Fitz-Hugh, Steele, Gudeman, and others, discussing points in Plautus and Horace, manuscripts of Juvenal and Virgil, ellipsis in Tacitus, the gerund and gerundive in Livy, Quintilian's criticisms of Terence, Cicero's appreciation of Greek art, and other things. Latin prosody had its hearing in thoughtful papers by Professors Goodell and Radford, and Dr. Edmiston; and the order of words in Latin was treated by Dr. Meader. It is worthy of note that all these Latin men speak Latin in the Roman fashion. The "English system" of pronouncing Latin in American colleges is dead

Archæology appeared chiefly at the evening session of Wednesday, July 8, in Osborn Hall, where a stage and a screen and lantern-slides gave prominence to Professor Richardson's exhibit of "A Head of an Ephebos from Corinth" and Dr. Tonks's report on "Three Terra-cotta Heads." Professor Richardson came fresh from his Corinthian sports with the spade, and showed the homekeeping members, who are perhaps too much inclined, or constrained, to research with the pen and the statistical digits, how profitable it is to dig.

Sanskrit was represented by Professor Hopkins in a paper on "The Ablative of Time in Sanskrit" (read by title), and by Mr. Michelson in a paper "On some Verb-forms in the Rāmāyana." Professor Hopkins, in another paper, on "Rousselot's Phonetic Synthesis," made mention of Avestan; and Professor Jackson, again re-

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turned from Persia, represented that ancient language by his genial presence.

There were three papers on English. One was by Professor March, in the form of a report of the committee on spelling reform, of which he has been the chairman for many years. He reviewed the present state of that educational movement, and then spoke especially of recent action by the National Educational Association and other bodies in the introduction of amended forms of words in their own publications. He intimated an expectation that a further step in advance, in the form of a discriminated use of the present double forms of *a*, *o*, and *u*, would be adopted in certain scientific publications. He referred to the fact that precisely the same kind of discrimination was undertaken by a few scholars about the year 1600, and was universally accepted in the next generation, in respect to *i* and *j* and *u* and *v*. In 1600 these pairs were used with no difference of value; about 1635 they were differentiated as now. The other English papers were by Dr. Scott. One was on "Assumed Singulars" (second paper), recording and discussing singular forms like *gramp* for *grampus*, *porpy* for *porpoise*, etc. (some eighty cases), and including an extraordinary tale about *bogy*, with "the only genuine" etymology of *bogus*. The other paper, the fourth and last of a series on "Attraction in English," was read by title and in brief abstract. A new field was opened by the same writer, in his systematic paper on "West Indian Words in East Indian Languages." In this paper the names of many tropical American fruits and other products which have migrated to the Eastern archipelagos were located first in the dictionaries of the West Indian, Mexican and South American dialects, and then traced to their places in Malayan, Philippine and Indian dialects into which they have penetrated. Among these words are *acaju* (*caju, cashew*), *anana, anona, batata, cacao, chilli, chocolate, guava, petate, tiangui, tobacco*. There are many more, some of which have long been left suspended between east and west. So much—too little if too much—for the papers.

Some innovations of procedure were initiated. A permanent committee on nominations was appointed, consisting of five members, one to retire each year. A proposal to alter the mode of publication of the papers, and to issue them separately, was referred to the Executive Committee, with power. The proposal which has been some years in the air, and which was this year the subject of a postal-card vote, to hold the annual meeting in the winter, in "Convocation Week," with other societies in the same city, was discussed and at length rejected. Those who opposed the proposal thought that in a general convocation, at the Christmas holidays, the members' minds would be distracted, and scientific zeal would be lost in social pleasure, while the result of meeting only in a few large cities would be to cut the Association off from actual contact with nearly all the colleges from which it draws its membership.

Two cities contended for the honor of entertaining the Association in 1904—St. Louis, which invites all the world, and Ithaca, the seat of Cornell University. Some preferred St. Louis because of the great Fair; some objected for the same reason. It was decided, by a majority of four, to accept the invitation of Cornell University.

The improved committee on nominations reported, as "the best they could do," the following ticket for the next year, which was elected: President, Professor Hempl; Vice-Presidents, Professors Earle and Merrill; Secretary, Professor Smyth; Executive Committee, the officers named, and Messrs. Bennett, March, Morgan, Perrin, and Scott.

THE DAUPHIN AND HIS KEEPERS.

PARIS, June 29, 1903.

M. G. Lenotre has applied himself with much zeal to the study of the Revolutionary period in France; some of his books have met with great and well-deserved success: 'The Marquis de la Rouerie and the Conspiracy in Brittany,' 'The Norman Chouannerie under the Empire,' 'Tournebut,' etc., etc. He has published an interesting series under the title of 'Vieilles Maisons, Vieux Papiers,' and he has just given us a second series of the same sort under the same title.

The new volume begins with an interesting study of the captivity of the unfortunate Dauphin, the son of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette, in the prison of the Temple. The name of Simon, who was the guardian of the Dauphin, has acquired a sort of celebrity; but we really know very little about him. On the 20th of May, 1788, Antoine Simon, a shoemaker, was married to Marie-Jeanne Aladame, a so-called *femme de ménage* (a servant who sleeps outside of the house and who helps for a few hours of the day only). Simon was already fifty-two years old. His life had been a succession of unlucky attempts and failures; M. Lenotre gives us the whole account of his wretched career. His wife (she was his second wife) was not quite as poor as he was himself. The Simons lived in the same quarter as Danton, as Doctor Marat, as Fabre d'Églantine, as the butcher Legendre; as two printers, one of whom became Marshal Brune, and the other Momoro, the husband of the future goddess of Reason; as Chaumette. In the Revolutionary days this quarter lived in a sort of continual delirium. Danton, the popular lawyer, who shook hands with everybody in the quarter, became Minister, and Simon was named Commissary of the Commune. We find him at all the popular demonstrations. His chief patron was Chaumette, who was charged by the Convention to take care of the Dauphin; and Chaumette chose Simon as the guardian of the child. He knew that the wife of Simon was an active woman, and expected, says M. Lenotre, that she would prove to be a good nurse. He held Rousseau's views on education, and thought it right that the child should learn some manual trade. Lenotre does not believe that there was at first any intention of martyrizing the child; Chaumette's idea was to educate the Prince "as a common man," and to give him a nurse capable of taking good care of him and of his health.

The National Archives have the account of the money which was spent for mending Simon's clothes when he entered upon his functions "with a blue coat, *color of the nation*, lined with scarlet red." The woman Simon was also dressed anew. Simon was to have a salary of 6,000 livres, an extraordinary sum for him; and his wife a salary of 4,000 livres. On the 3d of July, 1793, in the evening, the Dauphin, already asleep, was taken away from his mother and given to his two guardians. We can easily understand with what repugnance he looked on those who were to be his constant companions. If we read, in one of the court almanacs of the years preceding the Revolution, the pages concerning the household of the Dauphin, we see none but the greatest names of France. The woman Simon was very different from the ladies who had formed the society of the little Prince.

"What," says M. Lenotre, "seemed to him a sinister prison and a penitential requiem seemed to his keepers the last word of comfort and of high living. They were installed in the second floor of the Tower, in the apartment which had been left vacant since the death of Louis XVI.; they had never known such soft chairs, nor eaten so well. The small court of the Temple, with its meagre trees, which seemed to the Simons to be the real country, accustomed as they were to the mephitic smells of the dark courts and alleys of the street of the Cordeliers, must have saddened their prisoner, full of the memories of Versailles, with its infinite perspectives of chestnut trees in flower, and its distant woods joining the blue of the horizon."

This perpetual contrast seems to M. Lenotre to have been the cause of the child's sufferings more than the systematic barbarity of the keepers; he seems to consider the bad treatment of the Dauphin by the Simons as a legend. He tells, however, immediately afterwards an anecdote which proves that the education given to the Dauphin by his keepers had had its worst effect.

"I know an anecdote," he says, "reported by Daujon, an eye-witness, Commissioner of the Commune, an honest man and a rabid republican. Here it is as it was told me. I change only a word, too brutal to be reproduced. 'I was once playing with him,' says Daujon (in an original relation, kept in the collection of autographs of M. Victorien Sardou, the dramatist), 'at a little game of ball. It was after the death of his father, and he was separated from his mother and his aunt. . . . The room where we were was under the apartment of his family, and one heard a great noise as of chairs being dragged overhead. The child said, in a moment of impatience, "Have these women not yet been guillotined?" I would hear no more, and I left the place.'"

The anecdote is horrible, yet M. Lenotre believes it. It is more than I can do. The murderers of Louis XVI. and his family were, some consciously, some unconsciously, desirous to make them appear as uninteresting as possible. M. Lenotre believes that Simon discharged his function only with some reluctance; he was afraid of a political reaction; he was not a Brutus. We see in a note preserved by the Historical Manuscripts Commission, and written by an English agent, living in Paris in 1794, to Lord Granville, that "Simon, who had at first been very useful [to the royal cause], was so afraid of the danger he was incurring that he thought only of leaving his place." What was his danger? Had Simon been bribed by the royalists? Was he really engaged in a royalist plot? What is certain is, that the shoemaker suddenly resigned his post and left the Temple. "This determination," says M. Lenotre, "the causes of which are unknown, is one of the obscure points of this mysterious his-

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tory. On the 19th of January, 1794, the Simons presented the child, which had been confided to them, to four Commissioners of the Convention, who gave them a receipt attesting that Simon and his wife had turned over to them "the person of the prisoner Capet, in good health."

The Simons did not return to their lodgings in the Rue des Cordeliers, but established themselves in old stables very near the Tower of the Temple, where already lived some of the servants of the Temple. The Commune had decided that the section commissaries should visit the young Dauphin in turn. Simon never reappeared before him. Was he suspected? If he was, it would mean that he had become an ardent politician; he was a member of the Section Marat, previously "Section des Cordeliers." On the 9th Thermidor he appeared at the Hôtel de Ville as a partisan of Robespierre, was arrested by order of the journalist Fiévée, and guillotined the same day as Robespierre. His wife fell into a state of complete poverty; she had an incurable malady, and was finally admitted to a hospital of Incurables in 1796. She sometimes made allusions to the Dauphin, and often pretended that he was alive and that she had saved him. She did so probably in order to be better treated by her companions in the hospital, who at first looked with horror on the wife of the shoemaker Simon. She would say that "the child is not dead," that "she had contributed to his escape." "Oh! if I had my little Charles, I should not be so unhappy." She liked to make confidences and revelations to the doctors of the hospital, and she succeeded in making herself important enough to receive visits from some exalted royalists after the return of the Bourbons. "Some people," says M. Lenotre, "returned from the visits perturbed and convinced, but with the delightful sort of conviction which is enveloped in doubt, and of which mystery makes the charm." An official inquest was held, and in their report the police officers confirmed the existence at the Incurables of the widow Simon and her identity with the guardian of Louis XVII., adding that "she boasts of having participated in the escape of his Majesty, but she seems not to have the enjoyment of all her reason, and her faculties are impaired." The police finally forbade her to make any more revelations; but she continued to be haunted by the memory of the Dauphin, and once gave the most minute details of the pretended escape. She died on the 10th of June, 1819, and with her "died, perhaps, the secret of one of the most excruciating enigmas of history."

I have spoken at some length of what is to me the most interesting chapter of M. Lenotre's new volume. There is much variety in this work. A curious chapter relates to the famous Fouquier-Tinville, the public prosecutor under the Terror, and his wife. Fouquier-Tinville was an able but unsuccessful lawyer of the worst reputation. He was in such a wretched plight that, after the 20th of August, 1792, seeing the old world falling to ruins and his compatriot Camille Desmoulins made Secretary-General of the Ministry of Justice, he asked for an office, alleging "his capacity for contentious matters." It was a time when there was a great dearth of magistrates; he was named "public prosecutor" to the Revolutionary tribunal, with a salary of 8,000 francs and lodgings in the Palais. His place was no sinecure. The National Archives possess the enormous mass of documents which passed under his eyes; there are as many as six hundred boxes of them. On each document is found the mark of his red pencil. He became the personification of the Terror. When he felt a little tired, he drank brandy with the members of his packed juries, those whom he called the *solides*. Day after day he sent victims to the scaffold; on the 14th Thermidor, while he was drinking a glass of brandy at the bar of the Palais, he heard that his arrest had been decided on; he did not try to run away or hide himself. We have letters which he wrote to his wife from prison. He was fully conscious of his infamy. "I know nobody who would speak in my defence. I could not find in any country an inch of ground where I could lay my head." He was executed on the 6th of May, 1795, with fifteen of the jurors whom he had most compromised. A young woman walked all the time behind the *charrette*, and did not cease to reproach the assassin of her husband. Madame Fouquier-Tinville died only in 1856; she had lived in great retirement. A medal of the Virgin was found among her effects, with a card on which was written with her own hand these words: "He had this medal round his neck when he obtained the condemnation of the Widow Capet."

Correspondence.

DE ARROGANTIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the 'United States' volume of Lord Acton's Cambridge Modern History series I observe that one Woodrow Wilson refers to "one John Brown," meaning the Man of Harper's Ferry. Can you tell me who Mr. Wilson may be? From his arguing for State rights in the Confederate sense, and from his palliation of slavery, I conclude that he is a Southerner, and that a pedigree of two centuries of man-stealing, woman-flogging, baby-snatching, and lustful and thrifty miscegenation is the possible pinnacle from which he affects to look down on the historic figure, descended from the *Mayflower*, whose soul is marching on. Can you give me any reasons for thinking that Mr. Wilson will be remembered, or will deserve to be remembered, as long as John Brown?

A White Man.

[We cannot answer for the future of the President of Princeton University.—Ed. Nation.]

JEWS AND FILIPINOS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: That the Government of Russia is strictly within its rights in refusing to receive any remonstrance against the treatment of the Jews is generally conceded by thoughtful men; and the remark has been often made, both here and in Europe, that President Roosevelt would not be disposed to listen to any remonstrance against lynchings or other acts of barbarity within our own borders, if made by Russia or any foreign power. To whom, then, is he bound to listen if acts contrary to humanity are perpetrated? To the remonstrance of his own fellow-citizens.

When the Emperor Alexander the First of Russia visited England in 1814 and attended a debate in Parliament, he expressed the opinion that the Opposition was a very valuable part of the English Constitution; but he thought it would be much better if its leaders would deliver their criticisms and remonstrances to the Ministers in private, instead of bringing them in public before Parliament and the nation. It was generally thought that the remark showed a truly Muscovite ignorance of free institutions in general and those of England in particular.

But at this hour in the United States to whom do the elected rulers of the people listen when they are urged to act with candor and justice by every mode of private, public and Congressional appeal? The Government of the United States has now held military occupation, for a period equal to a full Presidential term, of the Philippine Islands. There is every species of evidence, beginning with the reports of its own officers and agents, and going through an endless line of testimony, native and American, military and civilian, that soldiers and officers in the employ of the United States have perpetrated on the natives torture and suffering totally alien to the avowed theories of modern warfare, and miserably excused by the retort that the Filipinos did worse by us. The President, his Cabinet, and Congress have been appealed to, by every means, public and private, to investigate, to report, and, if need be, to punish. No general or effective investigations have been made, no open and complete report has been rendered, the responsibility for such barbarities as could not be denied has been allowed to waver from private to subaltern and from subaltern to commander, and no effective punishment has ever been rendered for actions which are a stain on our flag.

Let the wrongs of the Jews be left to Russia; let the lynchings be dealt with by the respective States; and let the President and his Cabinet awake at last to the uninvestigated, unreported, unpunished wrongs which his fellow-citizens know, if he does not, have been perpetrated on a "feeble folk" by those who came as deliverers and remain as despots. T.

REPUBLICANISM AND THE SO-CALLED RACE PROBLEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Respected Friend: In view of the favor with which various propositions, to repeal, suspend, or circumvent the Fourteenth and Fifteenth amendments have been received in all parts of the country, it seems high time to ask the people of the United States to calmly reconsider the first principles of republicanism. It is safe to say that no other part of the Constitution is more essential to the perpetuation of republicanism than these two amendments. It is unfortunate that they are associated in the public mind with the unwise reconstruction policy which was imposed on the South for a short time after the civil war. The connection between them and that policy was apparent rather than real; and it is a great mistake to charge the deplorable results of that ill-

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considered experiment to these additions to the Constitution. Whatever may have been the intention of those who drafted these amendments, an examination of their context will show that they may be enforced to the letter without working injustice to any man or any community. They do not prohibit any State from punishing all its criminals. They only prohibit the States from permitting prejudice and injustice to dominate the enactment and administration of the laws. They prevent no State from prescribing the qualifications of its own voters, except that the right to vote "shall not be denied . . . on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude"; and the Fourteenth Amendment provides that "No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws." It seems as though these provisions must constitute the kernel of the alleged grievance; yet the only objection that can be urged against them is that they place all citizens on an equality in the eye of the law.

It is said that so large a proportion of the blacks are illiterate and criminally inclined that it is necessary to restrain them as a class in order to keep them from encroaching on the rights of the whites as a class; and it appears that the objection to the amendments is that they prohibit any restriction of the blacks that does not apply with equal force to the whites. In order to understand the full significance of this popular desire to segregate the negroes into a class by themselves, and to legislate for them as a "race problem," it is necessary to remember that justice deals with the individual, and cannot deal with the race except through the individuals that constitute it, and therefore can take no cognizance of race statistics. It follows that a "race problem," in regard to the treatment of its own citizens by the nation, cannot exist within the realm of justice. Under a system of government that is founded on justice, each man must be justified or condemned according to his own actions, and not according to his race; and a proper recognition of this fundamental principle of justice and of republicanism practically eliminates our present so-called "race problem" from the field of profitable discussion. It is palpably an outrage to deal out less than justice to a black man because a certain percentage of black men are criminals. A black man cannot be justly held responsible for the shortcomings of other black men, let the percentage of black criminals be what it may; and it is equally unjust to refuse to recognize the capacity of a black man because there are other black men less capable.

Assuming that it is true that the negroes as a race have less intellectual capacity and less basis for improvement than the whites as a race, that fact cannot militate against them either in the administration of justice or in regard to their legal rights as citizens. It is no province of the State to grade and classify its citizens, and deal out privileges to them, according to their intellectual capacities. Under a pure administration of justice, it is the lack of virtue alone that can place a citizen at a disadvantage in the eye of the law. The presence of a great number of criminals is undoubtedly a misfortune to the community in which they reside; but justice does not increase the punishment of a criminal because of his ignorance or of his lack of moral training, and to increase it on account of his race or of the color of his skin would, if possible, be a greater outrage. Even if there were a thousand negro criminals to one white criminal, that fact could make no difference in the administration of justice to each individual criminal, and certainly it could make no difference in the administration of justice to negroes who are not criminals at all. It follows that it would furnish no valid excuse for special treatment of the negroes as a race, or as a "race problem."

The contention—a contention with most respectable and influential sponsors at the present time—that only a comparatively small number of the white citizens of the United States are sufficiently acquainted with negro character to deal intelligently with the "race problem," is but a specious plea for the coveted privilege of dealing with the negroes as an inferior race. An acquaintance with justice, and with the principle of human equality in respect to the right to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness," is of far more importance than mere contactual acquaintance with the negro. It is enough to know that the negroes are human beings; that they have been close followers of the white man's example, and subjects of his compulsory guidance, for many generations, and that they must now live among us either as freemen under the full protection of the Constitution and the laws, or as servile suppliants for the white man's favor. Human nature is the same everywhere, and everywhere gives substantially the same response to brotherly kindness and encouragement, or to superciliousness and contemptuous depreciation, as the case may be. There is no essential difference between lust in the negro and lust in the white man, and covetousness is still covetousness in the one as in the other. Even if there are ten times as many lustful negroes as there are lustful white men, that fact creates no "race problem," because each individual is responsible only for his own sin, and no man can be justly treated as a sinner until he commits an overt act of sin. The only antidote for lust is self-restrained manhood; and the only method by which this antidote can be effectively applied is practically uniform throughout the world, regardless of race or condition. Surely, if ten righteous men were sufficient to have saved Sodom from destruction, the many thousands of righteous colored people in the United States should be sufficient to save the American negroes from being all stuffed together in a common matrix and treated as a "race problem." They have a right to be treated as responsible human beings—as men with a germ of the Christian religion in each of their souls. Even if there were no question of Constitutional law or of republicanism involved in the case, it should be obvious to every one that the treatment of the millions of colored people in the United States cannot be safely consigned to those who openly avow their belief that the negro is a menace to the welfare of the State except in the position of a fawning parasite. I do not mean to say that this is the belief of nearly all the white people of any section of the United States, but the favor with which the propositions to permit the whites of certain sections to legislate for the colored people as an inferior race are being received in all parts of the country, certainly does not prove that the negroes can be safely deprived of the full and unspecialized protection of Constitutional law in those sections where the prejudice against the political equality of the races is the greatest.

It were well if it could be recognized, once and for all, that there is no middle ground—no debatable land—between republicanism and a state of servitude or vassalage. Of course there are different degrees of vassalage, but the least degree is outside the bounds of republicanism. And when certain States of the Union demand the privilege of putting their negro citizens in a straitjacket and under leading-strings to the whites, it should be clearly understood that they are demanding the privilege of destroying republicanism. Republicanism consists in the equal representation of all citizens in the making of the laws, and in the uniform treatment of all citizens in the administration of the laws. To discriminate against a class of citizens in either respect is to destroy republicanism, at least so far as that class of citizens is concerned. It necessarily places a class of citizens in subjection to another class of citizens. It makes a class of freemen and a class of vassals; and at best the government becomes as a house which is divided against itself—republicanism on one side and despotism on the other. Hence "a white man's republic" spells negro bondage.

I do not deny that under certain abnormal conditions it may be expedient to so limit the right of suffrage as to exclude dense ignorance, but this must be done without discouraging any citizens from qualifying themselves, and without making it more difficult for some to qualify themselves than others. When it is thus possible for every man to qualify himself if he sees fit, all are still substantially on an equality in the eye of the law. But even this vitiates the purity of republicanism, and is permissible only as a temporary makeshift, or as the least of two portentous evils. In fact, the need of such an expedient is not so much because of the mass of ignorance as because the more intelligent part of the population have wofully neglected to gain the confidence of the ignorant by unselfish and enlightened leadership. It is the natural province of intelligence to guide ignorance, and the only possible basis for such guidance is mutual regard, with well-grounded confidence on the one side and untiring patience and self-sacrificing friendship on the other. And the selfish renunciation of this primary duty on the part of intelligence is infinitely more of a menace to the general welfare of the community than the full enfranchisement of the mass of ignorance itself. But, whatever may be the danger from enfranchised ignorance, it should not be forgotten that Caucasian ignorance is as dangerous as African ignorance; and to disqualify in any degree a large class of citizens "on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude," is to strike at the very root of republicanism. Moreover, if there is no desire to discrim-

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inate against the negroes on these accounts, of what significance is the popular contention that the black race is inferior and subservient to the white race by natural law and divine ordination? There has recently been a strenuous revival of this theory, which was scarcely more in vogue or more popular fifty years ago, in the days of slavery, than it is to-day. The present talk about the "superior race" and the "inferior race" means master and vassal if it means anything at all. If the so-called "superior race" once assumes the right to treat the other as inferior in any degree, there is nothing to hinder it from assuming the right to treat it as inferior in every degree. To infringe on the principle of equality under the law in the least degree is to destroy it totally. To say that the "superior race" will use superior political power with wisdom and justice, is to say that a master will treat his slave with wisdom and justice. We have a bare promise, which, as the history of the world proves, is made to be broken or kept according to the temper, the interests, and the exigencies of the master.

Let there be a cordial, unprejudiced recognition and encouragement of self-restrained manhood, without regard to race; and let all ignorance be treated impartially, regardless of whether it is white, black, brown, or yellow; and let all criminals be treated according to the crime and the law, and the "race problem" may be safely left to solve itself. It should be remembered that the colored people are here, natives of the country, with as good a right to a living as any of the rest of us. We can keep the Chinese from coming into the country, and all other foreigners also, if we see fit; but our colored people are already with us, and with us to stay and to increase in numbers, and it is the duty as well as the interest of all to build up their self-respect and manhood. A man develops his self-respect and manhood under difficulties when he is constantly being told that he belongs to an inferior race, that he is merely a small piece of a disreputable "race problem" which the white man has in to soak; that the nation is disgraced by having him break bread at the same table with a white man, and that it is his duty to go through life with his hat in his hand, ready to wipe the earth with his forehead as an acknowledgment of his inferiority before every white man that he happens to meet on the highway. A "race problem" in regard to our own citizens is a gratuitous incumbrance—a superfluous issue—which cannot be entertained as a basis for legislation and government without making a mockery of justice and disintegrating republicanism.

No one should need to be told that the question of political equality is entirely distinct from the question of social commingling. The first is a matter of inexorable principle and justice; the latter of personal taste and congeniality.

ISAAC W. GRISCOM.

A CASE OF "LIFTING."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you kindly inform your readers that the account of the admission of Franklin to the degree of LL.D. at Oxford in 1762, which appeared over the signature "D." in the *Nation* for June 25, was copied entirely from a work by me entitled 'Historic Side-Lights,' and published by Harper & Brothers in 1899? If so, you will much oblige,

Yours respectfully,

HOWARD PAYSON ARNOLD.

PASADENA, CAL., July 14, 1903.

[We regret very much to have been imposed upon by a person privately signing himself "Nelson Weld." At the same time we are pleased not to have had falsehood palmed off on us, and to have given wider currency to Mr. Arnold's laudable researches.—ED. NATION.]

THE ETHICS OF BOOK-MAKING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Ranck's apparently correct explanation (at p. 50 of your current number) of the reason why the volume of maps in the Supplement to the Encyclopædia Britannica is taller than the other volumes, only increases the doubtfulness of the ethics of the case by making it appear that we, for instance, have unwittingly bought the same atlas twice, while being supplied with two ostensibly independent encyclopædias. (There are slight differences between the maps in the Century Atlas and the Encyclopædia Britannica volume, but they are very slight, and the maps are certainly, as Mr. Ranck says, "the same.")

If librarians and other buyers are shy of subscription books, is it not largely because their publishers plainly say, "Beware of our tricks and manners"? 'Tis indeed a pity that we should be taught this of so reputable a firm as that responsible for the Encyclopædia Britannica.

W. I. FLETCHER.

AMHERST COLLEGE LIBRARY,
July 17, 1903.

Notes.

The Outlook Company are preparing to publish 'The New American Navy,' in two volumes, by John D. Long, ex-Secretary of the Navy; the 'Story of a Labor Agitator,' by Joseph R. Buchanan; 'Tolstoy the Man,' by Professor Steiner of Grinnell College; 'The Forest,' by Stewart Edward White; a 'Book of Trees,' by J. Horace McFarland; 'Backgrounds of Literature,' by Hamilton W. Mabie.

'Wild Fruits of the Countryside,' by Prof. F. E. Hulme, the initial volume in the illustrated "Woburn Library of Natural History," edited by the Duke of Bedford, will be published in this country by the New Amsterdam Book Company.

In default of a school of journalism, aspirants may look forward to a "thoroughly bright and readable" 'International Encyclopædia of Journalism' projected by William Hill (of the *Westminster Gazette*), Alfred Harmsworth (of the *Daily Mail*), and Maurice Ernst (of the *Neues Wiener Tagblatt*), and "to be published at a popular price, probably in two handy volumes on good thin paper." Its aim is historical for the rise and development of journalism, and practical upon all points affecting editing, publishing, ownership, general management and administration, processes of typesetting, the law of libel, and much more. The Secretary's address is Granville House, Arundel Street, Strand, London, W. C.

'Modern Civic Art,' by Charles Mulford Robinson (Putnams), relates to the planning and beautifying of cities. Its style is rather too eloquent—not to say grandiloquent—but its suggestions are almost uniformly sensible, and the examples cited are to the point. It should furnish ammunition to our various Municipal Art Societies and Art Commissions, but we could wish it a trifle quieter, while its usefulness would be greatly enhanced by illustration.

Prof. Harold N. Fowler has prepared a 'History of Roman Literature' for the Appleton series of "Twentieth Century Textbooks." It covers the field briefly from the earliest period down to the more important writers of the fourth and fifth centuries, and gives a well-selected bibliography as a guide for more extended study. The obvious criticism of the book, with relation to the pupil's highest interest, is that the attempt to supply a large store of information within the space limits allowed has been fatal to any adequate appreciation of the work of the really important authors.

Mr. Edwin M. Bacon's practised hand has been invoked once more to direct the stranger in the New England metropolis. For the late convention of the National Educational Association he prepared 'Boston: A Guide Book' (Boston: Ginn & Co.), very deftly put together and typographically elegant, subject to the drawback of fine type and the glazed paper demanded by the illustrations. These are numerous and well chosen, and equally commendable are the maps.

'The Poultry Book,' Parts I., II., by Harrison Weir, F.R.H.S., edited for this country by Willis Grant Johnson and George O. Brown (Doubleday, Page & Co.), is merely introductory to a work to be completed in eighteen parts. Harrison Weir, one of England's most noted animal draughtsmen, is also a recognized authority in the rearing and breeding of domestic fowl. The intention is to give the results of his fifty years' incubation on the subject. The American editors will devote their attention to our methods of breeding domestic fowl. These differ considerably from those pursued in England. As might be expected from Mr. Weir's skill as a draughtsman, the illustrations are of a high order of merit and accuracy. It is interesting to contrast his drawings with the American illustrations — process reproductions of photographs from life. Neither suffers by comparison. Part II. is a monograph on eggs by Miller Purvis of Illinois. They are considered from every standpoint. More attention might have been given, with advantage, to their infertility; for this is a subject which deeply concerns the chicken-raiser with incubators. The fertility of an egg cannot be established with approximate certainty until the fifth day of incubation. Even then apparently fertile eggs are subject to vicissitudes fatal to the production of vigorous chicks. The first loss through unfertile eggs is on an average about thirty-three and one-third per cent. Subsequent accidents increase this, so that only about half the eggs placed in incubators produce chicks which survive to reach maturity.

The 'Catalogo Generale della Libreria

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Italiana (1847-1899)' (Milan: Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) disposes of the letter L and makes a good stride in M in the two latest instalments. Among native writers some of the more prolific are Lombroso, Luigi Luzzatti, T. Mamiani, Paolo Mantegazza; and one is pleased to see a little group of the surname Marconi, writing upon education, agriculture, physics, medicine, and social reform. Editions of Machiavelli have been continuous from 1849 to 1899 (when the 'Discourse on the Tenth Decade of Livy' was edited for schools). 'The Prince' likewise has been frequently reprinted in the same period. Alessandro Manzoni fills two solid pages, with 'I Promessi Sposi' to the fore. Dr. Livingstone's works (to turn now to translations adventured in the peninsula) were called for in their time; Capt. Marryat's 'Snarleyyow' alone of all his novels has been taken over. Macaulay's Clive, Machiavelli, and History of England were appropriated, and his 'Lays of Ancient Rome' were essayed in 1869-72. Cardinal Manning, with half a column, outranks any of his compatriots in this particular section of the Catalogue, and shares with Longfellow the distinction of English-writing primacy in the Italian translation market. From 1866 to 1896 our poet's "Evangeline" (above all), his "Excelsior," "Wreck of the *Hesperus*," "Spanish Student," and "Miles Standish" have experienced many editions. It appears strange that nothing of Lowell's work has been attempted in Italian—a tribute, perhaps, to its American stamp. The inclusion of one of President Mahan's theological writings serves to emphasize Lowell's entire absence.

The Universal Technical Lexicon, 'Allgemeines Technisches Wörterbuch,' which the Society of German Engineers decided in the spring of 1901 to prepare and to issue in three languages—German, English, and French—is securing the enthusiastic support of the whole technical world. No fewer than 341 societies—namely, 271 German, 42 English and American, and 27 French—have undertaken to furnish systematic contributions to the work; and, according to the recent report of the general editor, Dr. Hubert Jansen, in Berlin, a million and a half of definition slips have been received with no further solicitation than the original request for collaboration published when the new enterprise was undertaken. It is noteworthy that no fewer than 2,185 business firms have promised their aid in gathering the necessary material. It is not proposed to print the work, which promises to be thorough and exhaustive, until 1905.

As a pendant to the Abbé Migne's famous 'Patrologiæ Cursus,' Latin and Greek, Dr. J. B. Chabot of Paris has begun the publication of a 'Corpus Scriptorum Christianorum Orientalium.' The editor himself has taken the Syriac texts in hand. In order not to come into conflict with any other series, the new Corpus will, for the present at least, publish only inedited texts, the departments to be covered including Exegesis, Liturgics, Ecclesiastical Jurisprudence, Dogmatics, Philosophy, History, and Hagiography. Each work is to be accompanied by a short introduction and notes. The Paris Imprimerie Nationale does the printing, and the cost of a sheet of Oriental text is to be one franc, and of the translated text half a franc. The undertaking is entirely one of Catholic scholars, and the list of contributors is international in character. It is the largest literary venture of the kind undertaken by Catholic savants for decades.

Numbers 2 and 3 of the *Burlington Magazine*, for April and May (London: Savile Publishing Co.; New York: Samuel Buckley & Co.), taken together, give a pretty complete idea of the scope and policy of the publication, which has nothing "popular" about it, and is distinctly, as its title states, "for connoisseurs." The superb quality of its reproductions and the seriousness of its text distinguish it from all other English art magazines, while it differs from Continental publications by the absence of any reference to the art of to-day. The editor, indeed, disclaims the intention of ignoring contemporary art, but so far nothing more recent than some of Rossetti's drawings of Miss Siddal, of about 1854, has been admitted. In another respect the scope of the magazine is broad enough, it having already included articles on Oriental carpets, English silverplate, and even tinder boxes, as well as on sculpture, painting, and engraving. The *Burlington Gazette* is published each month as a supplement to the *Magazine*, and contains accounts of sales, general art news and notes, etc., together with a "Bureau for Advice and Opinions" and Answers to Correspondents. The fine plates of newly discovered or little-known works of art will ensure the interest of artists; but the work as a whole is for the collector, to whom it should prove indispensable.

Prof. Friedrich Delitzsch, who spent the time from March to October, 1902, in a personal examination of the work done by the German Orientgesellschaft in Babylon, with Dr. Koldewey as manager, has given this society, of which the Emperor is an enthusiastic member and a liberal contributor, and of which Delitzsch is the President, a detailed account of what he saw and learned. His address, originally delivered in the presence of their majesties in Berlin, has been published. Noticeable is his affirming that in the law of 235 tablets found in the recently begun excavations in Dhara, three days' journey from Babylon, proof is at hand that the cuneiform system of script, a product of the Sumerian civilization, was originally developed out of a pictorial writing. He also announces the discovery of the proclamation of Cyrus issued after the taking of Babylon, from which it appears that Herodotus's version of the capture is incorrect, and that the city fell into the hands of the conqueror by treachery.

The University of Jena has just celebrated the four-hundredth anniversary of the birthday of its founder, the Elector John Frederick of Saxony, by the presentation, on a large scale, of an historical Luther play, written by Fräulein Dietrich, and entitled "Kurfürst Johann Friedrich der Grossmüthige." It is a singular fact that Jena, originally established to be the bulwark of orthodoxy, because even Wittenberg had lapsed from the true Lutheran faith, has now for many decades been the headquarters of advanced and progressive religious and theological thought.

"Economic Plants of Porto Rico" are described by O. F. Cook and G. N. Collins in a recent number of contributions from the United States National Herbarium, published by the National Museum. The list of all the native names of such plants which have been recorded contains references to their scientific names, so far as these have been determined. There is also miscellaneous information on the principal cultivated plants of the island, with notes on many of the minor economic plants. The English names have been included for the benefit of those who are familiar with the flora of other tropical countries. It is well known that the natives of Porto Rico have a longer series of popular names, and use them with more precision, than the inhabitants of other parts of the American tropics. Many species which in Cuba are not distinguished except by botanists, have received separate names in Porto Rico. This may be accounted for by the existence of a large rural population which has preserved names obtained from their Indian ancestors and from the Spanish settlers. In not a few cases these names are unknown outside the island, and are quite different from those used in Mexico and Cuba. The paper is illustrated by numerous half-tones and by figures in the text.

The cultivation of olives and the manufacture of olive-oil in France are the subject most fully treated in the Consular Reports for June, in response to a request for information from California olive-growers. Next in importance is the suggestive account of the German chambers of commerce, 145 in number, the Empire being divided into as many commercial districts. Their duties are to further the commercial and industrial interests of the district, to take the initiative in all promising new enterprises, especially such as relate to transportation, to establish commercial museums and to provide for technical education—one of the prime concerns, a deep interest being taken in the welfare of apprentices, and much being done to elevate their morals and habits. The annual reports are instructive, containing information as to the general state of trade and manufacture in the district, the condition of labor and the relations between the workingman and his employer, the schools, agricultural and food products, etc. Some reports "treat exhaustively the whole subject of the textile industry." Those of Hamburg and Bremen deal with shipping and foreign trade in general, and that of Frankfort-on-the-Main treats of chemicals, drugs, colors, and dyes. They exert a powerful influence on legislation, each chamber being regarded by the Government "as a full legal person, or corporation."

—Volume iv. of 'The Philippine Islands, 1493-1803' (Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Co.), covering the years 1576-1582, is at least not second in the amount of interesting material it contains to any of the preceding volumes of this extensive undertaking. This is due chiefly to the letters and documents forwarded by Doctor Francisco de Sande, third Governor-General of the Islands, 1576-1581, to the King of Spain (at that time Philip II). The larger part of the volume deals with the first expeditions undertaken by the Spaniards to subdue the Moros; and it is interesting to compare their accounts with the recent dispatches about our own Captain Pershing's undertakings in the Lake Lanao region. The Spaniards had not yet heard of that lake and its Moro settlements, but the expeditions in 1578 and 1579 to the Moro settlements up the delta of the great

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"Mindanao River" (now known as the Rio Grande of Mindanao) at Cotabato were in every way comparable to the recent pioneer work in the Lanao country. We think we can foresee the failure of the Spanish attempts with the Moros, when we read of their going at these people at the very start with pious ejaculations as to the "error of their ways" and of their intention of converting them to the "true religion" (this to Mohammedans, even recent converts!). We find that Sande himself directed the first expedition, that of 1578, against the Moro strongholds of Borneo; had Spain followed up this expedition, especially after succeeding to the Portuguese possessions with the union of the two crowns in 1580, Borneo would doubtless now be one more large addition to the list of our Philippine problems. The Sultanate of Jolo was then, as now, connected with possessions in Borneo; and this expedition resulted in the submission to Spanish sovereignty of the then Sultan of Jolo, formal documentation of which was made the first of a long series of pacts between Spain and the successive Sultans of Jolo. The next year we find the good and careful, but fussy, Doctor Sande enjoining on the Sultan, through his emissary to secure the annual tribute, that he exercise diligence in pushing the business of pearl-fishing!

—Other sidelights on these early days of Spanish rule are shed by the repeated news of conflicts between the civil authorities, and accusations of dishonesty and incompetency made against each other. There are not yet enough friars to bring them into the strifes as bitterly as a little later; and most of those who come are eager to abandon the Philippines at once for the fresher and broader fields for missionary work in China and Japan. Indeed, they left so rapidly that, after Governor-General Sande had refused permission, and one party of friars had left secretly for China, his successor, Governor-General Ronquillo de Penalosa, in 1582 formally issued an ordinance restricting departure from the islands. It is interesting to note that most of the friars who first came to the islands could not say mass or otherwise supersede the secular priests, and that numbers of the latter were at first sent to assume charge of the parishes as formed, the friars being expected to confine themselves to missionary work. Governor-General Sande speaks in 1577 of having to send some of the friars back, and asks that those sent shall be "such as are missed in the places from which they come." He prefers to have the new comers "such as cannot possess property."

—Callaghan & Co., Chicago, have published in three volumes the centenary addresses and proceedings of "Marshall Day," 1901 ('John Marshall: Life, Character, and Judicial Services'). The whole is compiled and edited, with an introduction, by John F. Dillon, and illustrated with portraits and a facsimile letter. The portraits are those of St. Mémin, Sully, and Inman. The centenary was celebrated in some forty States and Territories. From the multitude of addresses and the introduction, the reader gets a very good idea of Marshall's life and character as well as of his judicial work. The latter is, of course, to be judged, as here, mainly by lawyers. It is to the *Federalist*, rather than to the opinions of the Supreme Court, that the ordinary reader goes for early constitutional exposition. Marshall's life, as was pointed out by the late E. J. Phelps, and as the present editor repeats, is still to be written. Perhaps, however, no great man has ever lived as to the main points of whose career there is so little controversy; and as to the soundness of the structure which he made the legal foundation of our system, we believe there is today hardly the trace of a difference of opinion. If the "judicial veto," as Jefferson called it, and to which the Democrats of that day were violently opposed, is today a commonplace of American constitutional law, the fact is by common agreement due to Marshall, and this principle, which places the courts above the Legislature, is the feature of our system most essentially American. His judgments on international law are not so important, but they are of the first rank; of American Constitutional law he may be called the founder. If Marbury vs. Madison had been decided the other way, and Congress left to decide what was and what was not Constitutional, it is impossible to calculate the consequences. As a contribution to the development of Constitutional government, it is difficult to know with what to compare Marshall's decision; in our eyes it is hardly less important than habeas corpus or trial by jury.

—'Home Life under the Stuarts, 1603-1649,' by Elizabeth Godfrey (Dutton), is a book of very considerable attractiveness. Its subjects are well chosen, it is agreeably written, and in point of information it rather more than fulfils the requirements of the general reader. The author modestly observes: "To do the subject justice needs unlimited time, wide acquaintance with the very large and important literature of a great period, and a power of selection and coördination that I cannot lay claim to. It has sometimes seemed to me that I ought to leave it for abler hands, or wait till time should increase and ripen the little store of material I have gathered." Wrested from the book itself, these words may sound perfunctory; but coupled with it, they reveal a consciousness of high standards. The character of the contents may be inferred in part from the following titles, which appear in the table of contents: "The Nursery," "Children's Games," "Public Schools," "The Private Tutor," "The University," "Girlhood," "Giving in Marriage," "Married Life," "The Housewife," "Needlework," "Dress and Fashion," and "Gardens." There are other topics, but we have selected those which are most representative. Miss Godfrey draws her illustrations largely from the correspondence of the time, levying tribute upon the Verney memoirs, the letters of Endymion Porter and Mary Rich, and the account which Mrs. Hutchinson has left of her beloved husband. Though the greater part of the material comes from Cavalier sources, the Puritans are treated with fairness, and no disposition is shown to neglect the milder aspects of their family life.

—The Arnamagnæan Commission has, under the title of 'Palæographic Atlas, Danish Section,' just sent out, through the Gyldendalske Boghandel in Copenhagen, a portfolio containing in 38 folio plates collotype reproductions of sample pages of 64 mediæval Danish manuscripts and documents. This publication, whose editor is the learned librarian of the Arnamagnæan collection of manuscripts in the Copenhagen University Library, Dr. Kr. Kaalund, will prove of the greatest value to all students interested in Danish mediæval literature, not to say in mediæval literature generally. Such a publication has hitherto been lacking in Danish literature. The more or less imperfect facsimiles of sample pages that have accompanied earlier editions of old Danish manuscripts by no means rendered a publication like the present one superfluous. It draws from the most important manuscripts of Danish mediæval literature, written some in Danish and some in Latin, chronologically arranged, so that the student, besides having in the plates the means of forming an independent judgment of the date of the several manuscripts, has an opportunity of studying at first hand the development of the Danish language during those three hundred years in which was laid the foundation of the present Danish literary language, as well as of following the development of Danish chirography. Among the more interesting manuscripts here reproduced may be mentioned the several Danish Provincial Laws (those of Scania, Jutland, and Zealand), the Angers Fragment of Saxo Grammaticus, mediæval handbooks of medicine, Mandeville's Travels, Lucidarius, etc. Opposite each phototype is set a description of the several manuscripts and a diplomatic rendering of the text, each different hand in the original being shown in a different style of type. Of the scientific value of these parts of the work the editor's name is a sufficient guarantee. The methods followed in this publication are generally those employed in the several series published by the English Palæographical Society, and the entire publication, to which will shortly be added an Old-Norse-Icelandic Section, is very creditable to the editor as well as to the Arnamagnæan Commissioners and the firms responsible for the mechanical part of the work.

—For the past thirty years, efforts have been made to improve the situation in Denmark with regard to family names. When, by an ordinance of 1828, the use of shifting patronymics was prohibited, a large proportion of the peasantry kept the patronymics of that generation; hence the immense number of Danish Hansens, Petersens, etc. It is estimated by the editor of the Copenhagen Directory, in an article published in a recent number of the *Berlingske Tidende*, that the 3,200 entries of the practically meaningless name Hansen represent no fewer than 30,000 Copenhageners who bear it. Several other -sen names press the Hansens closely. The first scientific attempt to effect relief was given in a pamphlet published in 1899 by a commission appointed by the Ministry of Justice. In this report, prepared by several eminent specialists, a full account of the development of Danish family names is given, with special reference to the present situation. This has now been supplemented by a list of 1,600 Danish family names no longer in use, compiled by Verner Dahlerup and Johannes Steenstrup. In order to encourage the substitution of these good old Danish names for the objection-

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able patronymics, the Ministry of Justice has substantially reduced the registration charges, and the Genealogical Institute offers its services to discontented Hansens and Petersens at a correspondingly low rate. A similar crusade against patronymics is being conducted in Norway and by the Norwegian press in this country, the aim being to restore the old farm names, very few of which are now in use. It may be noted in this connection that the father of Björnstjerne Björnson was originally named Ske, from the farm on which he was born, and that he did not change it for the now famous patronymic until a few years before his marriage. Rasmus B. Anderson frequently uses his family name of Kvelve as a journalistic pseudonym.

—There are few historical events of the first rank which are involved in such obscurity as the Persian and Arab conquest of Egypt and even the whole period of the reign of Heraclius and his immediate successors. Especially the Muslim raid into Egypt and what followed it has lain hitherto in the most absolute uncertainty as to chronology, sequence, causes and end. This has been due to the contradictory and fragmentary character of the sources; the Greek chroniclers apparently did not know, and the Arabs did not care, how the matter had exactly gone. But the Egyptian Church did know and care, and now from its records, scanty as they are, in Coptic and Ethiopic, light is beginning to break. These scattered rays are skilfully brought together by Dr. A. J. Butler in his 'Arab Conquest of Egypt and the last Thirty Years of the Roman Dominion' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York; H. Frowde). Chronologically, Dr. Butler's period runs from the revolt of Heraclius in 609 to the death of Amr in 664. In events it takes account of that revolt, and of the importance of Egypt to it, of the Persian conquest of Syria and Egypt, of Heraclius's magnificent crusade against Persia, of the rise of Muhammad and the strange collapse of the so recently conquering Roman power, and of the Arab invasion and conquest of Egypt in detail. The two great figures in it are Heraclius and Amr, the one as conqueror and failure, the other as the founder of the Arab power in Africa. Another thread held firmly by Dr. Butler to the great advantage of his book is the ecclesiastical. Few are so well qualified as he to divide with safety the different sects and to trace their political affinities and discords. He can estimate, for example, the full weight of the error of Heraclius in attempting to compel ecclesiastical unity throughout the whole Empire. And so his history may also be said to be built round the long patriarchate of Benjamin, who was Jacobite Archbishop of Alexandria for thirty-nine years until his death in 662, and thus lived through the whole tragedy. On this side, too, lies Dr. Butler's most outstanding single contribution in his identification of the mysterious al-Muqawqis with Cyrus, the Melkite Archbishop of Alexandria, and the evil genius and riddle of the time. This identification, especially on the evidence of Severus of Ushmunain, must be regarded as complete, and the further explanation of the word "Muqawqis" approaches certainty. The silence or contradictions of the Arabic historians can have no weight against the Coptic evidence; on this point, as throughout, they were hopelessly in the dark.

THE BEGINNINGS OF A STATESMAN.

Life in a New England Town: 1787, 1788. Diary of John Quincy Adams while a Student in the Office of Theophilus Parsons at Newburyport [Mass.]. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1903.

We take leave to think that, in the matter of twin titles, this book puts the cart before the horse. Mr. Charles Francis Adams's prefatory excuse for publishing the present fragment of his great ancestor's Diary is that it gives a "graphic picture of social, everyday existence" in one of the most flourishing seaports of New England. Graphic we should hardly call it. His grandfather's descriptive faculty was among the least conspicuous of his admirable traits. The diarist nowhere undertakes to picture the general aspect of the town to which he came a perfect stranger, and, except for an occasional allusion, as to the "river" being "fast" in cold weather, his chronicle is as devoid of local color as could well be. We believe the Merrimack is not named in these pages, nor any street. How different this from President Dwight's portrayal and encomium of Newburyport less than ten years later; how like the young Adams's entry, on visiting Exeter, N. H., of his satisfaction with "the novelty of the town, which I never saw before"—and there an end. Both Providence and Newport, as stages on his way to New York, elicit more particular observation than Newburyport.

Part of the law student's satisfaction at Exeter consisted in having sleighed there "with an amiable girl"; and nothing is more striking than his occupation at this period with "the proper study of mankind," quite apart from its setting in nature. Not on familiar terms with a single household, as he records, he discharged his social duties with great assiduity. But what interests us is not the diversions in vogue, the musical entertainments, the rides, but John Quincy Adams in it all; here overdrinking with the men, there dancing or playing kissing games with the girls, and perambulating the streets with his flute, serenading till driven in by the rain. Why this interests us is because, Adams being an historic personage second to few others in American annals, we insensibly carry his mature repute into this diary. But then he was always mature. We are reading of the doings, observations, and reflections of a youth fresh from Harvard at the age of twenty; yet at scarcely any point on the intellectual side do they remind us of the graduate of to-day. How many of these would, after a day's gunning with no sport, hold such a colloquy with themselves as this?

"Game laws are said to be directly opposed to the liberties of the subject: I am well persuaded that they may be carried too far, and that they really are in most parts of Europe. But it is equally certain that where there are none, there never is any game; so that the difference between the country where laws of this kind exist and that where they are unknown, must be that in the former very few individuals will enjoy the privilege of hunting and eating venison, and in the latter this privilege will be enjoy'd by nobody."

Let forty-eight years elapse, and compare with the foregoing the following extract from the ex-President's diary (August 12, 1835):

"Mr. Abbott Lawrence told me that they were going to have a very great meeting at Boston to put down the anti-slavery abolitionists; but he said there was no diversity of opinion upon that subject here. That, I think, will depend upon the measures to be proposed. If the measures are vaporing resolutions, they will pass unanimously and be inefficient. If the measures are efficient, there will be diversity of opinion."

Plainly, the child is here the father of the man. But not yet is the *anti-slavery* paternity manifest. The Harvard bachelor was so much opposed to the pending adoption of the Federal Constitution as to incur the reproach of "anti-federalist." He said truly that, "if the Constitution be adopted, it will be a grand point gained in favor of the aristocratic party"; but the context shows that he had not in mind the slaveholding aristocracy, against whose intrenchment in the Constitution he afterwards inveighed in his Bridgewater address (1844)—"the exaction, fatal to the principles of popular representation, of a representation for slaves—*for articles of merchandise, under the name of persons.*" The youth makes no allusion to the proslavery compromises. He hears at Exeter, in the New Hampshire State Convention for ratifying the Constitution, the argument of Joshua Atherton, the leader of the opposition, who, "in a speech of more than an hour, recapitulated every objection that he could invent against the Constitution." Adams was now "converted but not convinced" in favor of acceptance, but he ridicules the speech as of "a miserable speaker and a worse reasoner." Nevertheless, we know that one of Atherton's titles to distinction is his having raised anti-slavery objections to the new instrument, and that he supported them in what some considered terms of pathos and eloquence, though perhaps on another occasion, as the Convention was adjourned. The curious juxtaposition was Adams in the audience listening despitefully to the grandfather of Charles G. Atherton, afterwards Representative in Congress and author of the "Gag Law" bearing his name directed against his then fellow-Representative, John Quincy Adams, the introducer of anti-slavery petitions. Only at Harvard's "exhibition" in 1788 was the returning graduate struck with Benjamin Abbot's "English Oration upon the Slave Trade [just limited in the new Constitution]." "I do not recollect," he says, "having heard any performances upon this subject at college, and it will afford a fruitful source for declamation." The next year he notes, without moralizing, that Newport's "former prosperity was chiefly owing to its extensive employment in the African slave-trade, of which some remnants still continue to support it."

Jefferson's 'Notes on Virginia,' half read before he went down to Newburyport, extort Adams's admiration for their learning and philosophy; but it is in the second half that the classic condemnation of slavery occurs. If ever reached in the two years of this diary, it elicited no comment. Adams's other reading, apart from his law books, did not differ greatly from what our present-day collegians might be found engaged in. But it is notable that the first book he took up in his new home was 'Tom Jones,' acutely characterized as "one of the best

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novels in the language. The scenes are not only such as may have taken place, but they are similar to such as almost every person may have witnessed. This book cannot lead a person to form too favorable an opinion of human nature; but neither will it give a false one." A month later we find him "at home all the evening, reading Rousseau's Confessions. This is the most extraordinary book I ever read in my life." These are some of the unmistakable signs of young manhood, and the fair sex are very much in evidence in this diary. Following a propensity which Adams exhibited on graduating in writing a "character" for perhaps every member of his class (the footnotes contain specimens), he seldom fails to try his hand on the women of his acquaintance, having the idea that "it requires a much longer acquaintance to form a just opinion of the character of a man than of a woman; the distinguishing traits are deeper and much more numerous." It cannot be maintained, we think, that the Characters are brilliant or lifelike, being exercises rather than visualizations; but they testify along with so much else to the writer's maturity, and were confessedly penned with a view to enlivening the diary with some variety. "The day was spent in the usual uninteresting manner. Indeed, it may be generally observed that the more advantageously the day is employed for myself, the less I have to say at the close of it." This it was, together with ill health, that made him vote the diary a bore and interrupt it. It is eked out by the editor with letters, and we bid farewell to Adams at Newburyport on December 5, 1789, writing to his mother of his part in the reception of President Washington, his predecessor in office as time would prove: "I had the honor of writing the billet which the major-general of the county sent him to inform him of the military arrangements he had made for his reception. And I had the honour of draughting an address which, with many alterations and additions (commonly called amendments), was presented to him by the town of Newbury-Port." The latter task had been confided to the jurist Theophilus Parsons, whose "indolence was accommodated in shifting a part of the burthen upon his clerk.'"

The sententiousness of young Adams's style freely marks and irradiates these pages, but we cannot indulge in many examples. In his Character of his classmate Learned, we read: "I would not give a fig for life, said he one day to me, if I could but plant immortality upon Ebenezer Learned. There is not at present any prospect that his name will obtain immortality; but he intends to be a preacher, when he may comfort himself with the idea that his soul may be immortal." Learned "acknowledges that his soul is tortured with ambition." Adams does not appear to have agonized on his own account, but lets you see his strong confidence in his own powers and his quiet aim to make his mark. After a day (December 11, 1787) over Blackstone he records:

"We had some conversation on the stale topic of self-love and disinterested benevolence. A subject upon which I have very frequently conversed with many different persons, and, notwithstanding everything that I have heard said upon the subject, I still retain the opinion which I adopted when I first reasoned upon it. I will not venture to say there is no such thing as disinterested benevolence, but I must say that, after searching as deeply as possible into my own mind, I cannot find a trace of it there."

Eighteen years afterwards, almost to a day (December 10, 1805), was born in Newburyport a shining exemplar of disinterested benevolence, never fully recognized as such by Adams, though they were fellow-soldiers against slavery, and though Adams had prayed in 1820 for a man to arise "with a genius capable of comprehending, a heart capable of supporting, and an utterance capable of communicating those eternal truths which belong to the question"; who had, as a youth, before his vocation was revealed, a pronounced ambition to be known, "at least to such an extent that common inquiry shall be unnecessary"; who presently edited in Vermont a paper in advocacy of Adams's re-election to the Presidency; who then deliberately forfeited advancement and reputation, and risked life itself, in behalf of the most helpless and degraded of his fellow-Americans; whose motto was, "My country is the world, my countrymen are all mankind." As a pendant to John Quincy Adams at twenty-two greeting Washington in Newburyport—Washington, who died an emancipationist—the historical painter may some day depict Garrison at nineteen, in the same town, pressing forward with the throng to clasp the hand of Lafayette, who more than once assured Thomas Clarkson that he would never have drawn his sword in the cause of America if he could have conceived that he was thereby founding a land of slavery.

We must not part from this reprint from the Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society without calling attention to the extraordinary diligence bestowed upon the notes, which throw a flood of light upon the topics of the text; and, above all, on the numerous personages who flit across the stage. Mr. C. F. Adams makes special acknowledgment of assistance rendered in this research by Miss J. C. Watts, a recent graduate of Radcliffe.

FOUR NOVELS.

The Under Dog. By F. Hopkinson Smith. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Sacrifice of the Shannon. By W. Albert Hickman. Frederick A. Stokes Co.

Sinful Peck. By Morgan Robertson. Harper & Brothers.

The Captain's Toll-Gate. By Frank R. Stockton. D. Appleton & Co.

Mr. Hopkinson Smith's genius for sympathy finds full expression in his stories of human under-dogs of one sort and another. Some of them are not particularly far under, being only hardworking captains or cabdrivers or paperhangers or Parisian waiters or sleeping-car managers. But each serves as a centre for an episode, rapid, vivid, story-telling. The most dramatic of all the number are the first three, which tell of the heavy pressure of the law on the whiskey-makers and whiskey-sellers in the mountains of Kentucky. There are undoubtedly moving pictures of a young mother with her baby dragged from her cabin into jail, of an old man wrongly arrested, of a thief punished for robbing the mailbag in the cause of righteousness. All are pitiful instances of justice gone wrong. And yet, as it chances, the moment is not a happy one for lamenting the over-insistence of law in the South, whether as to the safety of the mails or as to the disposition of whiskey. In stories of those who are delightfully called "old men with the bark on them," and of the small adventures of travel, this versatile pen is always timely. Mr. Hopkinson Smith is triumphantly not a member of the class which he thus happily describes: "The 'buttoned-up' misses the best part of travelling. He is like a camera with the cap on—he never gets a new impression."

To story-readers bored with drawing-rooms, shrinking from medicine bottles, heavy-laden with problem, whom man delights not nor woman either, we offer the advice to read 'The Sacrifice of the *Shannon*.' Here may be imbibed the pure strong air of Nova Scotia and the wholesomeness of perils overcome without gloom. Here are outdoor living, outdoor thinking, and outdoor feeling. The three or four principal characters are drawn with such robust tenderness that indulgence is willingly given to the perfunctoriness of certain lesser persons. The phrase describing "Caribou" (otherwise Pictou) as a little town "all beauty and repose and climate," indicates the tone and style of the book in its softer phases. This is what is said in connection with the heroine: "But remember, I mean real frankness and real unconventionality, not the poses. Women of all ages who pose as frank or unconventional, or both, are as common as barnacles on the bottom of a ship when she's been three years out of dock." From this infer the writer's powers of observation. As to his humorous side, many quotations might be made from Donald McDonald, the bland man of iron and dialect. But, for the icefields and the noble labors of the mighty ice-crushers, the book itself must be read. There is enough of love, adventure, scenery, and machinery in the little volume to enthral the entire family circle, and so judiciously bestowed that it would not be surprising indeed if fathers and sons were found tolerant of the romance, and if mothers and daughters should not skip the perils of the stokehold.

"Sinful Peck's" marine adventures were the result of what a certain comrade of his justly called "a fool bet on the Bryan election." This comrade was known as Bigpig, and there were others with equally descriptive names, who were all made drunk by Sinful and carried off on a voyage to Singapore. The refinement and charm of this beginning are more than sustained during the narrative. No one knows his brine and his boat better than Mr. Robertson, and in Sinful Peck's ingenious wiles and quibbles are occasional gleams of amusement. For the rest the story is odiously brutal. It is to sea stories what 'Bob, Son of Battle' is to dog stories. High praise this will be thought by many, and to them this book may be commended. We write not with intent to praise, but to warn off readers possessed of either sense or sensibility, and those who remember with admiration the author's fine earlier book, 'Spun Yarn.'

'The Captain's Toll-Gate,' besides its own interest, which is ample, possesses touching significance as the final work of Frank Stockton, in order of publication, though not the last writing of his pen—a

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pen that has added much to the rejoicing of mankind, and nothing to its vexations. A memorial sketch by Mrs. Stockton prefaces the story—a sketch made with perfect taste, and with an appreciation as clear as it had every right to be partial. Here, in the last story we shall receive from Stockton's hand and fancy, is a representative showing of his invention, his tenderness, his drollery, his love for the sea and the garden, his comfortable, comforting way of leading the reader through mysteries of which one need never be afraid; his light touch on all things grave and gay that holds and fulfils the promise of a sunny hour. Capt. Asher's reason for taking the position of toll-gate keeper after his retirement from sea service was that "he liked to meet with people, and he preferred that they should come to him rather than that he should go to them." This is deliciously typical, and suitably proclaims the motive of the story. Grave-faced oddities in character and situation touch happily as ever the sense of incongruity, nor are there lacking epigram and mere sheer fun. "All things come to those who cannot wait. They are in such a hurry that they take what they can get," sighs a rejected suitor in a fit of recuperation. To another his rival's swearing "up-hill and down dale" in an unknown tongue sounds as if the cursing one were "calculating his last week's expenses." But humorist though Stockton is in many ways—in his own way and in the best other ways besides—equally his is the spirit of human tenderness and all gentle affection. In his garden greatly flourished aromatic mints and fragrant roses. Only to the sour and the bitter was its soil inhospitable.

Le Japon: Politique, Économique et Social. Par H. Dumolard. Paris: Armand Colin.

The writings of the accomplished and critical author of this work in the *Far East* and other periodicals are well known to those familiar with Eurasian literature. He spent three years in Japan, employed exclusively in the study of the questions which have occupied the attention of the Government of Japan and of those who are interested in its people. Instead of giving his time and thought to "the enigmatic *mousme*," who is the Japanese Circe that throws acorns to the modern followers of wandering Ulysses, he devoted himself seriously to penetrating the problems of modern Nippon. He quotes on his title page a text from Lafcadio Hearn: "Indeed, the results of the new culture have served more than aught else to show the immense force of healthy conservatism in that race." In temper, however, the Frenchman is at the antipodes of Hearn, for whereas the latter is admiringly sympathetic, the Frenchman is intensely alien, sarcastic, and cynical. His whole idea seems to be to prove the truth of the ancient dictum of the first dwellers in the ports of 1859, that "in Japan the birds do not sing, the flowers are without perfume, the men without honor, and the women without virtue." In his conclusion, he reëchoes the bon-mot of a fellow-countryman, "The Japan of to-day is a bad translation." Take, for example, his word-picture of the Prince Imperial (p. 56):

"A child scrofulous and debilitated, continually in the hands of the doctors, he has even come to the age of manhood without relations with the rest of the world. Unknown to the people, without any personal prestige, we may ask ourselves whether, when the responsibility of power is placed upon him, he will find the necessary energy to cope successfully with the formidable demagogy which has made onrush into the Japanese political world."

One does not read very far before he discovers the animus of this patriotic Frenchman, who wishes the French and Russian world to know just what kind of an antagonist Japan would be in time of war, and exactly what a rival Japan is in time of peace. Despite the author's ill-concealed prejudices, however, he has certainly made a thorough study of the situation. It is safe to say that there exists no book which gives so full and exact a picture of the Japan of 1903. Many of his chapters are enriched with statistics drawn from the most trustworthy sources, which he handles with skill and ease, making them interesting almost to eloquence. What is not usual with the average French author, he spells the names of foreigners correctly, though an occasional lapse shows a Gallic peculiarity. His long dwelling upon the ground, while in Japanese employ, gives a firmness of touch in handling, for example, such subjects as the Constitution and the political parties. He is very full on finance and agriculture, and, apart from what seems to be an exaggeration of the defects of the Japanese as colonizers, he treats ably of the commercial and industrial evolution of Japan, even while scouting the idea of the pretended "Yellow Peril." He knows too well the inherent defects, moral and otherwise, of the Japanese workman, and is unable to believe that the Japanese have sufficient stamina to hold their own in the competition which they must encounter in hoped-for conquests of the world's choicest markets.

It is quite certain that no book thus far published gives so scientific a view of the labor question and of pauperism as does this. It may be that if Mr. Dumolard had seen the beggary, the horrible hygienic conditions, and the very unequal state of the peasantry in the various provinces in old Japan of even the late sixties, he would have modified considerably some of his rather pessimistic judgments on the contemporary Japanese. Indeed, one defect of his work seems to be in his apparent lack of familiarity with the country at large outside of a few great cities. Nevertheless, it is true, as he points out with unsparing detail—quite equal to the report of a Salvation Army major—that a new sort of pauperism has come to stay in modern Japan, and that in addition to the herding at industrial centres of human beings who are simply so many "hands" in a factory, there have grown up in the large cities new neighborhoods of abject poverty, or, in a word, slums.

On the subject of public instruction, religion, feminism, and art, the author is suggestive and interesting. On foreign politics he speaks as a master, though he probably paints in too sombre colors those weaknesses of Japan which arise from the rising tide of demagogism. He insinuates that the time will come when party passion will be mistaken for patriotism, and Japan lose that unity which hitherto, in resisting the onset of the foreigners and in carrying through the war with China, has been her greatest strength. He shows remorselessly how the financial problems of Japan consequent upon her adoption of modern civilization, and especially since her deceptive victory over China in 1895, have grown beyond the power of the resources of the country to solve, or the statesmanship of the Mikado's ministers to master. He points out, also, probably with no disposition to minimize, the insubordination in the schools and the decay of the ancient habits of reverence and obedience among the young towards their elders and to lawful authority. On the subject of Christian missionary work, conducted mainly by English-speaking people, he reveals the prejudices of one doubly an alien. His pictures of peninsular politics, in his chapter on Japan and Korea, are despairingly pessimistic, as though to hint that it would be a blessing to the world if Russia would step in and govern the little country where "in reality the most absolute anarchy reigns in the court and higher administration," and in which, over an utterly apathetic people, rules a good-natured puppet without will, energy, or ideas. Unfortunately, his picture is too true. The author intimates that the Japanese would in all probability strain their resources to the utmost to hold the upper hand in Korea, which country, as well as the Chinese province of Fu Kien, is deemed vital to their interests to control.

It would be hard to mention an important subject in contemporary Japan which Mr. Dumolard does not discuss with vigor, in his highly suggestive, informing, and well-written book.

Rural England. By H. Rider Haggard. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902.

Those who have read Mr. Haggard's novels would not have chosen him for an office requiring sobriety of judgment and accuracy of statement. They would have feared that his exuberant imagination and flamboyant eloquence might tend to make the record of his observations somewhat too fantastic for the purposes of science. A glance at these volumes, however, will convince any one that such apprehensions have not been justified. There is not a trace of exaggeration in the style, nor a suggestion of the influence of any motive except the desire to tell the plain truth. Regarded as a narrative of what Mr. Haggard has seen and heard, his book deserves hearty praise; and while he has not always seen and asked about the things concerning which we are most curious, his descriptions are generally instructive as well as interesting.

Yet we hesitate to recommend this book to American readers. Twelve hundred pages are too much; the condition of English agriculture interests few persons to that extent. Only such Americans as understand our agriculture and have occasion to travel through rural England will appreciate the elaborate county maps, and the minute particulars concerning numberless farms which are here presented. But it is not more than fair to say that every one who cares for rural life will find it hard to lay the book down after he has read a little way in it. Mr. Haggard's travels may lead nowhere in particular, but he is too agreeable a companion to part from willingly.

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The picture drawn is that of a declining industry, and the causes of its decline are clearly disclosed. We might say the cause, for the lessened cost of transportation is the controlling element. Railroads and steamships have brought the prairies of America and the pastures of Australia alongside the farms of England. The price of corn has fallen, the profits of farmers have disappeared, rents have vanished; and in many cases both landlords and farmers have literally been swept away with their fortunes. Add to this the progressive income tax and death duties, and it is plain that the day of great estates is past. A few of the nobility still hold out, and by the practice of enlightened husbandry enjoy a precarious prosperity. But their days are numbered. Two or three deaths at short intervals in an English landed family would mean its ruin. New men may buy their lands, but they will not maintain the tenantry. The farmers will die or emigrate; laborers will abandon their falling cottages; the land will return in great measure to pasture, to forest, to waste.

The resistance to this process is enormous. Family pride dies hard; many of the gentry have kept their tenants long after their rents began to fail, and many tenants have clung to holdings that no longer supported them, because they had been the homes of their fathers for many generations. Even the laborers have remained on the land until the higher wages which the town could pay and the country could not, have drawn them away. Nor has there been a lack of ingenuity on the part of the farmers in struggling to meet competition. Manures are imported in vast quantities; every variety of machine is employed to reduce the cost of production. On good land and on land near the market agriculture pays and will pay. Elsewhere it cannot, and its cessation is only a question of time. Something may be done by improving transportation, and something by introducing small holdings and market gardening. We fail to see why dairying and poultry farming are not more prosecuted, and why the coöperative creamery does not more prevail. But, on the whole, the agriculture of the past is doomed, and that which is to come will be on a smaller scale, employing different methods and devoted to other products.

As a matter of fact, the changes that have taken place are no greater, although more impressive, than those of the last sixty years in New England. The culture of wheat has declined in England; it has ceased altogether in Massachusetts. The farmers of the Eastern States buy their flour and much of their feed from the West. More land has been abandoned here than there; more families have been thrust from their ancestral acres. The changes have been little noticed, comparatively, because there was nothing dramatic about them. No order of nobility was overthrown; no tenants were exiled over the seas. Where there is nothing old enough to arouse reverence, the most revolutionary changes scarcely excite attention; and the New England farmers so plainly bettered themselves when they preempted the rich lands of the West as to make it vain to deplore their forced emigration. And as the growth of manufactures has given new value to much farming land here, so it has been in England. Probably the English farmer has been slower to give up unprofitable crops; almost as much wheat is raised in England as ever. At all events, the worst is over. Cost of production is not likely to fall much lower, and if it rises, rural England may renew its prosperity.

The Dispatches of Field Marshal the Duke of Wellington. Selected and Arranged by Walter Wood. Dutton. 1903.

In an age of anthologies and short cuts, one need not feel surprised at the sight of anything in the way of an abridgment. Were it not for this expectant state of mind, we should hardly be prepared, it must be confessed, for a *précis* of Wellington's dispatches. The complete edition, brought out by Col. Gurwood, occupies twelve large volumes, and was a work involving so much labor that immediately upon its completion the overwrought editor took his own life. Now we have a compilation in one volume which is based upon Col. Gurwood's *opus*, and is designed to exclude the dull and tedious parts of the bulky original. Mr. Wood contributes a few notes, but avows his book to be in other respects a piece of condensation. Apart from the Peninsular war, which is the great subject, Wellington's career in India is illustrated by extracts from his official correspondence, while the episode of his service in Denmark is noticed, and the Waterloo campaign is dealt with at considerable length. We must not neglect to state that a special section is devoted to the Duke's dispatches on American affairs during the war of 1812.

This book will be of slight service to the general reader; and as the student of military history will use the unabridged version of Gurwood, we can discover a field for Mr. Wood only among those who are particularly interested in Wellington himself, or among historians who simply wish to study the annals of warfare in their effect upon politics. Dispatches unaccompanied by extensive notes produce a disjointed effect; and where, in addition to omission, there is abridgment, the lack of unity becomes more apparent still. Fortunately for Mr. Wood, Wellington was a direct and characteristic writer. According to Lord Roberts's opinion, he has been underestimated as a general and overestimated as a man. His dispatches certainly strengthen the impression of his administrative capacity, and at times he even appears in the light of a politician—or, at least, in the light of a soldier with political opinions in the broad sense of the word. For example, he advocates the prosecution of the Peninsular war on the ground that no other expedient is so likely to prevent a Napoleonic invasion of England. Writing to the Earl of Liverpool nearly five years after Trafalgar, he says:

"From what I have seen of the objects of the French Government, and the sacrifices they make to accomplish them, I have no doubt that if the British army were for any reason to withdraw from the Peninsula, and the French Government were relieved from the pressure of military operations on the Continent, they would incur all risks to land an army in his Majesty's dominions. Then, indeed, would commence an expensive contest; then would his Majesty's subjects discover what are the miseries of war, of which, by the blessing of God, they have hitherto had no knowledge, and the cultivation, the beauty, and prosperity of the country, and the virtue and happiness of its inhabitants would be destroyed, whatever might be the result of the military operations."

This passage is worth quoting for the phrase about "the virtue and happiness of its inhabitants," but it also shows that Wellington, while not fit to be styled a politician in comparison with Napoleon, could, at least, address a telling political argument to the home authorities. Some of the dispatches relating to the American war are energetic in diction, and show how disturbed Wellington was at the posture of things in 1813. For example, he writes to Marshal C. Beresford: "I have been very uneasy about the American naval successes. I think we should have peace with America before the season for opening the campaign in Canada, if we could take one or two of these d—d frigates."

We may conclude by stating what we have already implied, namely, that this abridgment will probably prove useful to those whose business it is to know something of the connection between war and politics during the opening years of the nineteenth century.

Sexual Dimorphism in the Animal Kingdom: A Theory of the Evolution of Secondary Sexual Characters. By J. T. Cunningham, M.A. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 8vo, pp. xi, 317. Illustrated.

The theory of Sexual Selection was a postscript to that of Natural Selection, the idea being that, after having survived among the fittest, the male must compete with other males to obtain a female and leave progeny. In connection with fighting, courting, nesting, and other differences in the habits of the sexes, there are structural differences, secondary sexual characters, comprised in what is known as sexual dimorphism. These, in the Darwinian belief, originated through sexual selection, which is not to be separated from natural selection and does not account for origins. The volume in hand is a very comprehensive and convincing presentation of a Lamarckian explanation of the same phenomena and of their origin.

The structural differences of animals are arranged by the author as (1) structural peculiarities by which relationships and classifications are determined, Diversity; (2) the structural differences of individuals in the same species, Polymorphism; and (3) the structural changes undergone by the individual, Metamorphism. The special field of this discussion is the most common case under polymorphism, sexual dimorphism. The topics include such features as distinguish one sex from the other, horns, with shedding and renewal, callosities, ornaments, etc., etc. Gleaning from the conclusions, it is learned that the peculiarities are all intelligible if regarded as consequences of life and growth; stimulation of certain kinds by external forces causes growth to take certain directions, and that new growth has a tendency inherent in the processes of life, hereditarily, to resemble old growths in form; the variations occur when the particular habits and conditions produce them, and the real explanation of evolution lies in the explanation of individual variation. Evolution of secondary sexual characters is attributed to physiological principles of growth and modification.

A fundamental objection to the theory of

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sexual selection, or to any selection theory, is that it does not account for the origin of the variations it assumes, and throws no light whatever on the facts (1) that the characters do not appear till the individual is sexually mature, and (2) that they are inherited only by the sex which possesses them. The true explanation is that heredity causes the development of acquired characters for the most part only in that period of life and in that class of individuals in which they were originally acquired; heredity being a tendency in the new individual to pass successively through the same stages of growth as its parent, the inheritance being a process rather than a state, and the special processes occurring by heredity in subsequent generations when the body is in the same condition, not otherwise. The view favored by our author is, that the direct effects of regularly occurrent stimulations are sooner or later developed by heredity, but only in connection with the physiological condition under which they were originally produced. This view is claimed to be new and original in its special details; in general it differs little from the theory of variational tendencies transmitted by heredity repeatedly suggested in this journal in comments on Darwinism.

In structure this book is an improvement on the works originally advocating the theories to which it is opposed; it is filled with instances formerly urged in support of those theories, but these same instances are now used to disprove the Darwinian contention, and have become thoroughly and effectively Lamarckian.

British Political Portraits. By Justin McCarthy. The Outlook Co.

The title of this book challenges a comparison with the late Mr. Frank H. Hill's 'Political Portraits.' Unfortunately, the result of the test is not what might have been expected from Mr. McCarthy's reputation. Neither in insight nor in literary skill does it come near Mr. Hill's brilliant series of studies. It is below the level of the book of the same type written by the late Mr. R. H. Hutton, of the political sketches in the volume called 'Modern Men,' and, indeed, of a great deal of contemporary journalism issuing from the Press Gallery of the House of Commons. The critical part of the book is sadly inadequate. There is practically no attempt, for example, to explain the secret of Mr. Chamberlain's success, or to show why Lord Rosebery's leadership, in spite of his many gifts, has been so ineffectual. In a single sentence of Mr. Massingham's in the *Speaker*—"Lord Rosebery is the chameleon of politics"—we are told more of Lord Rosebery than we get from the twenty-two pages Mr. McCarthy devotes to him.

Possibly it is because Mr. McCarthy is of too kindly a disposition to be critical. His optimism respecting the future of almost everybody becomes nothing short of amusing as one makes one's way through the book. Lord Rosebery has not yet done his appointed work (p. 69), but the time for him to take his real position will come soon (p. 72); Mr. Chamberlain "may well feel proud in the consciousness that the close attention of the political world will follow with eager curiosity his further career" (p. 98); Mr. Morley "has still, we may hope, a long political career before him" (p. 148); Lord Aberdeen "has yet, I trust, a long and fruitful career before him" (p. 174); John Burns "has good and great work yet to do" (p. 201): Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, though sixty-five years of age and not in robust health, "will before long begin a new administrative career" (p. 227); Mr. John Redmond "is still young enough to have a career before him, and I feel the fullest confidence in his future" (p. 253); "the best of Sir William Harcourt's work"—he is seventy-five years of age, we must remember—"is yet to be done by him" (p. 279); and Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman "is destined to do great service yet to the Liberal cause, and to win an honorable place in British history" (p. 331). Evidently, for the next generation or so, there will be little chance for Mr. Asquith, Sir Edward Grey, Mr. Lloyd George, Mr. Wyndham, and other younger politicians, who are popularly supposed to be coming to the front.

The greater part of the book is taken up with biographical matter, presented in a readable fashion, but of no particular novelty or importance except in those instances where Mr. McCarthy has some reminiscence of his own to relate. The principal value of the volume consists in these incidents. We obtain, for example, first-hand particulars of Mr. Chamberlain's relations to the Nationalist party at the time of the Phœnix Park murders (p. 93); of Mr. McCarthy's intercourse with Mr. Morley, and its peculiar limitations, while the latter was Chief Secretary (p. 140); of a conversation between the writer and Mr. Gladstone, which did much to convert the English statesman to home rule (p. 269); and of the effect upon Mr. Morley of Gladstone's farewell speech in the House of Commons (p. 319).

In Mr. McCarthy's account of that speech he represents Mr. Gladstone as calling the question of the position of the House of Lords "a question which has become profoundly a truth." What he actually said was, of course, "a question which has become profoundly acute." The blunder suggests that Mr. McCarthy's book was dictated to a stenographer, and there are other indications of a certain carelessness in compilation in keeping with this theory. "Lord Viscount Cranborne" (p. 35) can scarcely have been passed by the author himself in the proofs. Mr. Balfour is represented on page 6 as having published his 'Foundations of Belief' during the Fourth Party days; actually, it appeared in 1895. In each of three distinct places (pp. 22, 71, 227) Mr. McCarthy spends a page or more in speculating on the prospects of the next election and the chances of a reaction against Jingoism. Twice he estimates the importance of the House of Lords in the Government (pp. 55 and 166); twice he shows the disadvantage of a Premier's being in that House (pp. 63 and 321); and twice he describes the change in London Government from the Board of Works to the County Council (pp. 57 and 190).

On the whole, these sketches make creditable journalism, but are a disappointment if judged by a higher test.

On the Polar Star in the Arctic Sea. By H. R. H. Luigi Amadeo of Savoy, Duke of the Abruzzi. Translated by William Le Queux. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1903. 2 vols., imp. 8vo, pp. xxii, 346, xii, 347-702. Maps and illustrations.

We have already summarized the itinerary of the Italian Polar expedition of 1899-1900, including the heroic struggle by which Commander Umberto Cagni succeeded in reaching over the ice the highest latitude yet attained. We now have, in two ponderous volumes, the official narrative of the expedition, together with a report on his ice journey by Commander Cagni, and another by Dr. Molinelli on the work of the second detachment and the state of health of the party during the whole expedition. The work is dedicated to the memory of King Umberto in a few moving lines addressed to the queen mother of Italy. The book is written in an admirable spirit, without pretence or egotism, and the translation is smooth and idiomatic. For those not especially familiar with Arctic literature the details given will be full of interest. For the Arctic expert there is little that is new. The equipment of the ship, the gathering of West Siberian dogs called for at Archangel, the encounters with the ice, the struggle northward over the floes—all this has for the expert little that is novel or remarkable, nor was the contrary to be expected. Once a land-margin is abandoned, the only differences which can be looked for between the narratives of one party and another lie in the latitude attained and the personal characteristics of the individuals concerned. Brave men encountering identical difficulties with similar equipment and aims must in the nature of things have very much the same story to tell. The party was composed of Italians and Norwegians, who, according to their commander, behaved through this voyage as though the crew were composed of one nationality. The courage, perseverance, moral and physical endurance of every sort of privation shown by the Italians composing the sledge expedition of Commander Cagni placed them in the same rank with the best explorers of more northern origin, and earned the gratitude and hearty appreciation of their officers.

It would seem after the experience of so many parties, including the present one, that one lesson might have been learned, *i. e.*, the inadvisability of too warm and heavy clothing. The difficulties experienced by the travellers from moisture within their clothing, footgear, and sleeping bags, point unerringly to the conclusion that the men were too warmly dressed, and too heavily covered at night. Relatively light clothing while engaged in active exercise, with an extra jumper of down or rabbit skin to put on while quiescent, are prescribed by the experience of expert sledge drivers during low temperatures. Other than this there is little to criticise in the conduct of affairs as detailed by the author. The experience of this expedition confirms the estimate made on data afforded by previous expeditions, that the best equipped and manned sledge parties cannot expect on long journeys over the ice floes to average more than three miles a day. A greater average, with present ideas of equipment, must be merely a lucky accident.

The book is issued from imported sheets printed on paper heavily clay-faced, and the weight of it is a weariness to the flesh. It can be read only while supported on a table or stand. This paper,

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which crumbles into dust as one cuts the leaves, and sticks like chalk to the fingers, is not necessary to the proper printing of photo-engravings, but is offensive to every person of taste. The illustrations are of varied quality, some very good, the majority mediocre, none striking. The maps are excellent, and there is a fair index.

Texas: A Contest of Civilization. By George P. Garrison. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1903. Pp. v., 320.

Of all the authors who have contributed to the "Commonwealths Series," certainly none has had a more inviting subject than Mr. Garrison. Here, one would think, there was little necessity for a mere chronicling of the small beer of cross-roads politics; little difficulty in keeping in the main travelled roads of American historical development. If the subject is an attractive one, the writer's opportunities as professor of history in the University of Texas must have been equally exceptional. The result, however, is somewhat disappointing. While the book is far from being the poorest in the series, it does not level up with the best. If this is an unfair standard, it still remains true that Professor Garrison's 'Texas' is not as valuable a work as might justly have been expected by those who are familiar with the series as a whole; it neither gives us a great deal of new or detailed information (which the author states has not been his object), nor reveals any very suggestive or illuminative thought in dealing with the history of Texas as an incident in the expansion of the United States.

The book may be divided into three parts —the history of Texas to 1821, the history of the relations of Texas and Mexico from 1821 to 1837, the history of Texas from 1837 to the present time.

The first part is satisfactory. The description of the rivalry between France and Spain for possession, and the discussion of the types of Spanish settlement, the weaknesses and failure of Spanish colonizing methods, constitute the best treatment of the subject in English in brief space. While a fuller statement of the governmental organization of the *Provincias Internas* after 1775 would have been serviceable, the brief outline here given stands out in clear relief when compared with the vague, ill-informed treatment of the same subject in English generally. In treating of the relations of Texas and Mexico from 1821 to 1837, to which something over a third of the book is devoted, the result is still in the main satisfactory. The author traces in some detail the internal history of Mexico from the establishment of the Republic of 1824 to the centralizing reaction under Santa Anna; shows how the location and physical character of Texas made colonization from the United States inevitable; gives in detail the history of Austin's settlement; and then relates the story of the war between Texas and Mexico until the achievement of independence by the former in 1837. This struggle, the author impresses upon us, was the irrepressible conflict of two radically different types of civilization; slavery was merely one, not especially important, element in the difference. The war was entered into by Texas at first for the purpose of restoring the Constitution of 1824, which Santa Anna had virtually overthrown; not until this was found to be impossible did independence become the object.

This is very well, and doubtless this point of view needs emphasizing. But in emphasizing it we think Professor Garrison has underestimated the importance of slavery in Texas and of the slavery question in the United States. "The idea that it [*i. e.*, the colonization and revolutionizing of Texas] was consciously inaugurated and carried out with that object in view [extension of slave territory] is too palpably mistaken to be worth discussion," he says (p. 216). This is too curt a dismissal of a difficult matter. One may sympathize with the author's obvious dislike of the term "slavocracy," and still regret that he has not found it worth while to say anything about Sam Houston previous to his arrival in Texas. It was indeed a contest of two opposing civilizations that severed Texas from Mexico, rather than a contest between Mexico and the "slavocracy," but the contest was influenced not only by the existence of slavery in Texas, but also by the existence of the slavery question in the United States. The South needed new territory to protect the institution of slavery, and because of this fact there existed a community of interest between the slaveholding States and the slaveholding Texans, which made revolution more desirable and easier than it would have been otherwise. Not the existence of slavery in the United States, so much as the existence of slavery *in the Southern States only*, was the fact of vital importance in the history of Texas. If the author has failed to emphasize this fact, it is doubtless because of his anxiety to avoid the "slavocracy" ardor of Von Holst.

The last part of the book is, to say the least, inadequate. It is with a sense of bewilderment, deepening to positive amazement, that one reads chapter after chapter with scarcely more than a hint here and there of the tremendous issues that were producing civil war in the United States. The question of annexation is dispatched in the briefest, most perfunctory fashion. One might suppose that the issue depended upon the series of pointless battles which were fought by the Texan and Mexican armies, rather than upon events occurring in the United States. The civil war and reconstruction are susceptible, it appears, of a similarly conventional consideration. With every approach to the slavery question, indeed, the treatment becomes gingerly in the extreme. In a word, it is obvious that Professor Garrison has persistently fought shy of the historical problem presented by slavery in the United States. Whatever the real or fancied necessity for this method, it has proved almost fatal to what otherwise might have been one of the best books of an excellent series.

The index is fairly good. No bibliography has been prepared, and no references are given. The comparative inaccessibility of the material makes it desirable that the author should have performed this essential service for students of American history.

Inorganic Chemistry: With the Elements of Physical and Theoretical Chemistry. By J. I. D. Hinds. John Wiley & Sons. 1902. 8vo, pp. 566.

A dweller in town can do very well with no knowledge of zoölogy or botany; but everyday life nowadays demands acquaintance with a very considerable body of chemical facts, principles, and methods. For a first introduction to the subject, we have a work of genius, Mendeléef's 'Principles.' For physical chemistry there is the treatise of Professor Jones. We cannot see why it would not be better to begin one's descriptive study with the simpler, more instructive, and better understood—albeit the bulkier—organic branch. The reverse is the universal practice. It is a tradition from a time when the Berzelian theory appeared to render inorganic bodies the simplest things in the world, while organic chemistry was a chaos. However, all the books are written on the assumption that the student takes up inorganic chemistry first, and thus he is well-nigh compelled to do so. It is just as it is with geometry, all mathematics being written on the assumption that metrical geometry is studied first, projective geometry next, and topical geometry last of all, although no fundamental understanding of metrical geometry is possible except on a basis of projective geometry, nor of projective geometry except on a basis of topical geometry. The force of history asserts itself even in pure science. But arrange the curriculum as one will, there comes a day when the young chemist has to sit down and commit to memory a vast load of facts about the elements and their compounds. For that severe labor we have seen no single volume better adapted than this of Professor Hinds. It is well packed with well-chosen facts stated with the utmost simplicity; and there is not one that it will not pay a modern man to know by heart. A considerable number of extremely easy experiments are suggested, and the preface to this volume informs us that there is another for use in the laboratory. Such a volume is wanted.

One of the features which particularly adapts this treatise to memorizing is its strict adherence to Mendeléef's arrangement of the elements. Just here, too, is the principal fault of the book. It not only never suggests the inadequacies of that arrangement, as even Mendeléef himself often does, but it stuffs the new earthy metals into the Mendeléefian pigeonholes in a manner to make Procrustes grin. Praseodymium and neodymium, two elements so much alike that years of fractional crystallization are required to effect the separation of them, are here placed in different groups with a black line running between them to show that one of them is basic, the other acidic. Gadolinium and thulium are earthy metals whose elementary nature is not the most certain of facts. They both come from the same mineral and are difficult for an ordinary chemist to distinguish. One of them is made by Prof. Hinds to be intermediate between silver and gold, while the other is grouped with chlorine, bromine and iodine; and there is no reason whatsoever for this except that their atomic weights, which are dubious to the last degree, bring them into those places. There are other cases just as bad. In short, the "periodic law" of the elements is treated as if it stood on a par with the three laws of motion.

No chemist who thoroughly comprehends the logic of such inquiries and who

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knows the history of attempts to classify the elements as it is set forth in Professor Venable's 'Development of the Periodic Law,' can fail to admire supremely the wonderful discovery of Mendeléef. But in physical inquiries it often happens that the student notices a regularity which, upon following it up, continues to be fulfilled, but only in a roughly approximate sense. This state of things shows that there really is some such regularity, but that it has not been correctly formulated. There must really be such a law, or it would not continue to be fulfilled at all. It cannot be correctly formulated, or it would be fulfilled more exactly. Such a law often goes on very satisfactorily for a long time, if one is not too particular, and then suddenly goes quite to pieces, though perhaps later it may come out clear and definite again. This is what we ought to expect in the case of Mendeléef's law; for throughout it is quite wanting in anything like numerical definiteness. It should be regarded as proved that the relations between the metals of the rare earths are not represented at all in Mendeléef's table; and if its lower lines can be regarded as fitting the facts at all, the fit is a mighty loose one, a sort of ready-made fit that would suit very different facts just as well. We ought to add that any complete discussion of the evidences of the periodic law ought to take account of several other considerations which we have not space to notice here.

It is a serious fault in Professor Hinds's work that it treats the law as if it were perfect. It not only teaches what is not proved to be true, but even what is proved not to be true. It may be said that the table, at any rate, lends a support to the memory. So it does; but it would do so all the better if its inadequacies were pointed out. They would forcibly strike the student's attention and serve as landmarks, so to speak, in what otherwise might appear to him as a desert of uniformity.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Cannan, Edwin. Theories of Production and Distribution. London: P. S. King & Son. 10s. 6d. net.
Carpenter, J. E., and Wicksteed, P. H. Studies in Theology. Putnams. $2 net.
Cooke, G. A. A Text-Book of North-Semitic Inscriptions. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. $5.35 net.
Duff, Rt. Hon. Sir Mounstuart E. Grant. Out of the Past. 2 vols. E. P. Dutton & Co. 5s. net.
Hammer, William J. Radium and Other Radioactive Substances. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.
Heermans, Josephine W. Stories from the Hebrew. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Hilton, Harold. Mathematical Crystallography. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. $4.75 net.
Hulbert, Archer B. Boone's Wilderness Road. (Historic Highways of America, Vol. 6.) Cleveland, O.: The Arthur H. Clark Co. $2.50 net.
Jastrow, Morris, jr., Die Religion Babyloniens und Assyriens. Part III. Giessen: J. Ricker'sche Verlagsbuchhandlung (Alfred Töpelmann). M. 1.50.
Jones, L. H. The Jones First, Second, Third, Fourth, and Fifth Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Kingsley, Charles. Westward Ho! 2 vols. J. F. Taylor & Co.
Learned, Marion D. A New German Grammar. D. Appleton & Co. $1.15 net.
Lodge, Sir Oliver. Modern Views on Matter. (The Romanes Lecture, 1903.) Oxford: The Clarendon Press: New York: Henry Frowde.
Lupke, Robert. The Elements of Electro-Chemistry. Second English Edition. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Miller, Joaquin. As It Was in the Beginning. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson.
Palgrave R. H. Inglis. Bank Rate and the Money Market in England, France, Germany, Holland, and Belgium: 1844-1900. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.50 net.
Quarterly of the Texas State Historical Association, Vol. VI., July, 1902, to April, 1903. Austin, Tex.: Published by the Association.
Representative Art of Our Time. Part VIII. "The Studio" Library. John Lane. $1 net each part.
Ruskin, John. Letters to M. G. and H. G. Harpers.
Sanday, W. Sacred Sites of the Gospels. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. $4.50 net.
Sinclair, Samuel B. The Possibility of a Scientific Education. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press. $1 net.
St. Augustine. The City of God. Translated by John Healey. 3 vols. Macmillan. 50c. per vol.
Stevenson, Robert Louis. Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde. Printed in the Pitman style of phonography. Cincinnati: The Phonographic Institute Co.
Swift, Lindsay. Literary Landmarks of Boston. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
The Burlington Magazine. Vol. II., Number IV. London: The Saville Publishing Co.; New York: Samuel Buckley & Co.
Van Zile, Edward S. A. Duke and his Double. Henry Holt & Co. 75c.

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